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Henry Tatsuo Azuma

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OF MALE BLACK YOUTH: A DELINQUENT-
NON-DELINQUENT COMPARISON.

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**EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL PROJECTIONS
OF MALE BLACK YOUTH: A DELINQUENT-
NON-DELINQUENT COMPARISON**

A Dissertation

**Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

in

The Department of Sociology

by

**Henry Tatsuo Azuma
B.A., Kentucky Wesleyan College, 1967
M.A., Louisiana State University, 1970
August, 1974**

DEDICATION

**To Professor Vernon J. Parenton:
Role Model for Developing Sociologists.**

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ABSTRACT

The subject of this study is the educational and occupational projections of Black male delinquents in Louisiana. Similar information was collected for non-delinquent Black male youth which made a comparative analysis possible.

The data on delinquent youth were collected from the State Industrial Schools at Baton Rouge and Monroe. The delinquent sample was composed of seventy ninth and tenth grade Black males. The data on non-delinquent youth were collected from two urban areas in Louisiana from which the delinquent respondents also came. A junior high school and a senior high school were sampled in each urban area. The non-delinquent sample was composed of seventy-five Black male youth in the ninth and tenth grades. The data were collected from Fall, 1972, through Spring, 1973.

Significant differences were detected when comparing the educational and occupational projections of the delinquents with those exhibited by the non-delinquent respondents in this study. The non-delinquent mean scores for both dimensions of educational projections were higher than their delinquent counterparts. The same differences between delinquents and non-delinquents were observed for both dimensions of occupational projections that were reported for educational projections.

The explanatory power of the basic path models utilized in this study was found to vary considerably. Overall, the non-delinquent models exhibited a higher degree of explanatory power in comparison to their delinquent counterparts. The educational projection models for both groups explained more variance than the occupational projection models. The most powerful model in terms of explained variance was the one for the non-delinquent educational expectation. Furthermore, the occupational expectation model for delinquents was the most inefficient model, while the same model was still relatively efficient for non-delinquents at this level.

Overall, the different path models utilized were evaluated as a step in the right direction for three reasons. First, the models used in this study explained a relatively larger amount of variance in comparison to past studies. Second, in three of the four path models used, the personality group of variables had a noticeable mediating effect on the influence of the situational and control variables. Finally, the variable of deferred gratification was found to have relatively larger effects for both groups under investigation. It was also a crucial intervening variable in the comparative portion of this study. However, it must be pointed out that only a small amount of the variance is accounted for by the situational and control variables utilized.

Thus, more work is needed to locate the determinants of the personality group of variables if the optimistic evaluation of the basic model is to become a reality.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. SUBJECT

The subject of this study is the educational and occupational projections of Black male delinquent youth in selected areas of Louisiana. Similar information was collected for non-delinquent Black male youth to make possible a comparative analysis. The relationships between the following variables were investigated:

- (a) Perception of Opportunity,
- (b) Achievement Level,
- (c) Achievement Motivation,
- (d) Peer Group Influence,
- (e) Influence of Parents and Teachers,
- (f) Deferred Gratification,
- (g) Educational Projection, and
- (h) Occupational Projection.

B. SIGNIFICANCE AND OBJECTIVES

Past research and publications on educational and occupational orientations have dealt mainly with four basic types of comparisons: (1) lower class-middle class, (2) rural-urban, (3) Black-white, and (4) male-female. There is an absence of

of research literature concerning the specific area of this investigation. The only exception to the above statement is two articles and two professional papers written from data collected by this researcher. However, the original study conducted by this researcher (Azuma, 1970) focused upon only three of the eight variables mentioned as the focus of this study. It is the specific intent of this study to continue the original comparative investigation, incorporating additional variables and utilizing a causal framework for analysis.

Furthermore, numerous articles and studies have inferred a positive relationship between perception of opportunity and aspiration level of a respondent. However, only a few studies have reported on the significance of perception of opportunity on delinquent and non-delinquent youth. It is also interesting to note that the traditional variables of peer group influence and deferred gratification have not been directly investigated in the majority of the research literature available in the general area of aspirations. Hopefully, this study will be able to contribute to our understanding of the effects of perception of opportunity, peer group influence, and deferred gratification on delinquent and non-delinquent educational and occupational aspiration and expectation levels.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. INTRODUCTION

The specific purpose of this study is to extend what little empirical information there is on the educational and occupational orientations of Black male delinquents.¹ Because of this relative lack of research literature, the primary focus of this review will be on prominent theories in delinquency that can be applied to the subject area of this investigation. This chapter will also present a systematic review of past research findings that are considered to be relevant to either the delinquent or non-delinquent Black sample.

B. RELATED DELINQUENCY THEORIES

The delinquency theories of Richard A. Cloward and Lloyd W. Ohlin, Albert K. Cohen, Walter B. Miller, and Gresham M. Sykes and David Matza can be classified as subcultural in nature. All four

¹For a comprehensive listing of literature on educational and occupational status projections of youth, see Ohlendorf, et al. (1967).

theories deal to some extent with the normative aspects of groups smaller than a society. In each of the theories, variability in delinquency by social class is posited. Thus, delinquency is viewed as primarily a phenomenon of the lower class. However, each of these theorists treats the effects of middle-class values on the delinquent youth in a different manner.

Albert K. Cohen (1966: 65) has addressed most of his work in the area of delinquency to the following question:

Why is delinquency disproportionately frequent among lower-class youth, and why does so much of it have no manifest point or utility, but seem rather to proceed from a spirit of pure meanness, negativism, contrariness, and the like?

Cohen's (1955: 17) starting point in his general theory is the assumption that all human action is one of problem solving. These problems arise and are solved within an actor's "framework of reference" and the situation confronted. The situation includes the physical setting in which the actor must function, the limitations of time and energy on problem solving, and the demands, expectations and social organization of people with whom he interacts. By "framework of reference", Cohen (1955: 51-54) is referring to the values possessed by an actor.

The formation of a subculture can be viewed as a solution to status problems. Status problems are defined by Cohen (1955: 54) as "problems of achieving respect in the eyes of one's fellow." A person's ability to achieve status depends upon the criteria of

status applied by his peer group. These criteria of status are a part of a person's cultural framework of reference (Cohen, 1955: 54).

Cohen (1955: 17) noted that delinquency occurs when lower-class youth reject middle-class values and take part in what is termed "street-corner societies" to solve their problems. "Street-corner societies" are viewed as delinquent subcultures that cope with the delinquent youth's status problems. "The delinquent subculture deals with these problems by providing criteria of status which these youth can meet," according to Cohen (1955: 121). At this point, it should be noted that Cohen is emphasizing the importance of the youth's peer group in solving his status problems. Thus, the peer group becomes the source of criteria that directs the youth's quest for status.

Cohen's explanation of the formation of a delinquent subculture makes it clear that the norms of a subculture are not learned, taught, and accepted in the same manner in which the delinquent youth learn to eat, sleep, dress, and speak a certain language. The norms of a subculture are seen as a result of reaction formation by lower-class youth (Cohen and Short, 1958: 21). These youth are reacting to blockage in the attainment of success goals valued by society at large. These goals are in the area of educational achievement, financial success, and occupational success or prestige. Since the lower-class youth are not

equipped to achieve these goals, they seek out an alternative status system in which they can function and achieve. This alternative system can take the form of a delinquent subculture that represents everything the middle-class system is against. The members of the delinquent subculture are then rejecting middle-class values because they are a source of frustration and anxiety to them.

According to this orientation, the delinquent subculture is a response to status problems of lower-class youth. As stated before, status problems relate to the achievement of respect in the eyes of one's peer group. Therefore, status is not an inert characteristic or property that a person obtains and keeps. A person's status is a dynamic property that can "vary with the point of view of whoever is doing the judging" (Cohen, 1955: 123). When the point of view is middle-class in nature, it is plausible to assume that the working-class boy is concerned about this dimension of his status. Status as defined in middle-class terms presents an adjustment problem to these youth.² Cohen (1955: 128) posits that, "to this problem of adjustment there are a variety of conceivable responses, of which participation in the creation and the maintenance of the delinquent subculture is one."

²Roach and Gurselin (1965: 503) feel that one of the central tenets concerning man is the assumption that, "the basic motive of the actor is the satisfaction of status needs."

Cohen acknowledges the fact that middle-class values pertaining to education, occupation, and financial success influence delinquent behavior. He feels that this influence persists only as a repressed and unrecognized source of anxiety and frustration. Cohen has stated that he views delinquency as occurring when lower-class youth reject middle-class values and take part in what is termed "street-corner societies" to solve their problems. In the main, Cohen's theory pertains to gang delinquency. However, Cohen is concerned with a broader spectrum than this when he delves into the influence of middle-class values in regard to educational and occupational success. Applying Cohen's perspective, one can hypothesize that delinquent youth who perceive blockage in the possible attainment of traditional goals will exhibit a lower educational and occupational orientation than non-delinquent youth.

Cloward and Ohlin (1960), in their discussion of delinquency, have pointed out that youth have problems of status frustration caused by their inability to achieve the success goals as defined by middle-class values. The manner in which they try to resolve or reduce the intensity of status frustration depends on the alternatives available. Delinquency is seen as being related to frustrated aspirations and a lack of legitimate opportunity. In other words, the hiatus between what lower-class youth aspire toward and what they actually expect to attain is the source of a major adjustment problem.

Whether or not a lack of legitimate opportunities exists in society today is not the important issue in regard to the application of Cloward and Ohlin's perspective. What is important is the perception of opportunity held by delinquent youth. For a lack of legitimate opportunities to have an effect on the desires and plans of a delinquent, he must first perceive this situation as existing in his social environment. A Chicago study by Short, Rivera, and Tennyson (1965: 56-67) made the above assumption and focused on the relationship between perceived opportunities and gang membership. The variables of class, race, and gang membership were taken into consideration when designing the study. The study reported that educational opportunities are more often perceived as available by non-gang and most middle-class boys, and that white and Black boys are equally likely to perceive such opportunities as available. Landis and Scarpitti conducted a similar study on institutionalized delinquents and compared them with non-delinquents. The results of this study showed that awareness of limited opportunities was associated with delinquency proneness and involvement (Landis and Scarpitti, 1965: 87-91).

The third theory that can be applied is that of Walter B. Miller. Miller (1958: 5-19) views the "lower-class culture" as the generating milieu of delinquency. His theory emphasizes the perspective that "lower-class culture" exists as an entity within itself, and has no need to be considered as a reaction to middle-class

values. "Lower-class culture" is also seen as "the cultural system which exerts the most influence" on the lower-class delinquent (Miller, 1958: 19). Yet, Miller describes only a small segment of this class which he labels the "hard core". He focuses on subcultural variation within the lower class. The main difference between the group of people he is describing and the remainder of the lower class is the degree to which societal values and goals influence them.

Gordon and associates (1963: 114) have inferred the following from Miller's theory:

Lower-class and gang boys should (1) not evaluate the middle-class image as high as do middle-class boys, (2) evaluate lower-class images higher than middle-class images, (3) evaluate the lower-class images higher than do the middle-class boys, and (4) evaluate images that accord with lower-class focal concerns, such as the retreatist, conflict and criminal images, higher than do middle-class boys.

Miller (1958: 12) also states that, "the status-conferring potential of smartness in the sense of scholastic achievement generally ranges from negligible to negative." Using this perspective, it can be hypothesized that delinquent youth will have the same low aspiration and expectation levels as their non-delinquent lower-class counterparts.

Sykes and Matza's (1962: 251) neutralization orientation seems warranted in this area of investigation also. They hypothesized that much delinquency is based on "what is essentially an

unrecognized extension of defense to crimes, in the form of justification for deviance that is seen as valid by the delinquent, but not by the legal system or society at large" (Sykes and Matza, 1962: 251). The norms and values of the larger society are acknowledged by the delinquent youth, but techniques of neutralization are utilized to justify his delinquent behavior. This perspective could be utilized to hypothesize that the aspiration level of delinquent and non-delinquent youth should not be significantly different. This orientation differs from Miller's because one cannot infer that delinquent or non-delinquent youth from the lower class will have low aspiration and expectation levels in regard to educational and occupational placement.

C. RELATED EMPIRICAL STUDIES

The research studies included in this section have been selected on the basis of their consideration of educational and occupational status orientation of Black youth. The dimensions of status orientation used as criteria for inclusion in this review are: (1) Aspiration, (2) Expectation, and (3) Projection Models.

Educational and Occupational Aspirations

It has been noted by Kuvlesky and Bealer (1964: 5) that, "an aspiration usually refers to a person's, or grouping of persons', orientation toward a goal." Aspiration can be seen as being composed of three analytical elements. They are: (1) a person or a

group of people, (2) a positive orientation, and (3) a goal (Kuvlesky and Bealer, 1966: 269). Only the second and third elements are considered in this investigation. Therefore, an educational aspiration is the level of education that an individual desires to attain. In regard to occupational dimension, an aspiration is the occupational position that an individual desires to have. These definitions were utilized in the selection of material for this review.

Seymour Martin Lipset (1955: 226-227) has made a general hypothesis that youth from rural areas achieve less social mobility than those raised in an urban setting because they have lower educational aspirations. Russell Middleton and Charles M. Grigg (1959: 352) designed and conducted a study in Florida in 1954 which attempted to test Lipset's hypothesis. They failed to detect any significant rural-urban difference in the educational aspiration levels of Black youth in their sample.³ This result does not support Lipset's general hypothesis when applied to Black youth. However, it is questionable whether Middleton and Grigg's study really tested the hypothesis. The lack of rural-urban differences among Blacks could have been caused by the fact that Blacks with low educational aspirations dropped out of school before their senior year (Middleton and Grigg, 1959: 353-354). They

³One can only assume that the educational aspiration levels of Black youth were high, because Middleton and Grigg failed to report the observed levels.

were working with a biased sample, as it is unrealistic to assume that a senior sample is representative of Black youth in a given area. Further research will have to be conducted before one can accept or reject Lipset's contentions utilizing a sampling procedure focusing on youth before they reach the legal age to leave school.

Studies pertaining to the level of educational aspirations for Black youth in an urban setting have frequently utilized the Black-white comparison. In 1959, Holloway and Berreman tested a set of hypotheses derived from Stephenson's (1957: 204-212) study of one thousand ninth graders. The hypothesis, that if aspirations are measured independently from expectations there is no difference between class and race, was substantiated. Holloway and Berreman (1959: 58) found that the educational aspirations of Black youth do not vary with class, and that the Black youth in their study had high educational aspirations. Gist and Bennett (1963: 40-48) conducted a similar study in Kansas City. They focused on ninth and twelfth graders in four city high schools and found no difference between Black and white aspiration levels. The Black students in their sample exhibited a relatively high level of educational aspirations. These findings held for all social classes and both sexes, and supported the results of the Holloway and Berreman study, mentioned above, pertaining to the educational aspirations of Black urban youth. The findings of Kuvlesky and associates (1969) and

and Azuma (1970) also support the findings of the above studies in regard to the educational aspiration level of urban Black youth.

In the area of occupational aspirations, it has been noted by Phyllis Herson (1965: 147) that Black youth generally aspire to high status occupations. In accordance with Herson's observation, Middleton and Grigg (1959: 350) detected no significant difference between the occupational aspirations of rural and urban Black male youth in their study. They found a majority of their Black respondents aspiring to white-collar occupations. Furthermore, the findings of J. Steven Picou's study that dealt with Louisiana youth lends support to the above findings (Picou, 1969: 106).

It has been noted, in this section, that past research that focuses on only twelfth grade respondents has a built-in bias toward high aspirations. One of the first studies on the occupational projections of Black youth did not have this bias. Paul F. Lawrence (1950: 47-56) conducted this study, and focused on tenth grade Black students in thirteen urban high schools in California. Approximately forty per cent of his respondents aspired to high status occupations. It is interesting to note that twenty-five per cent of his high status respondents aspired to careers in the area of music. Stephenson (1957: 210) reported that fifty-nine per cent of his Black respondents aspired to high status occupations also. Even when the researcher is sampling a lower grade level that is not biased by school dropouts, Black youth still exhibit high occupational aspirations.

A study conducted in an industrialized city in New York by Aaron Antonovsky and Marvin J. Lerner (1959: 132-138) indicated that Black youth had high occupational aspirations. The Black youth sampled in this study were from the lower class and ranged in age from sixteen through twenty. After evaluating the high aspiration level of the respondents in regard to their Intelligence Quotient level and high school grades, the researchers, Antonovsky and Lerner (1959: 137) concluded that, "there is little doubt that the high status aspirations of these Negro youngsters have large components of unrealism." They also noted that failure to achieve these goals:

...may well lead to an intense sense of bitterness and alienation. Thus, in turn, might result in a rejection of the value orientation, of the middle-class virtues of achievement and respectability, and a plunge into apathy or anti-social behavior (Antonovsky and Lerner, 1959: 137).

Antonovsky and Lerner have reached the same type of conclusion that Cohen did as to what may occur when youth fail to achieve their success goals.⁴

Educational and Occupational Expectations

An expectation does not indicate a positive or negative pre-disposition toward a social object, but it does indicate that the attainment of a given social object is anticipated to a certain

⁴See the section entitled Related Delinquency Theories in this chapter for an elaboration of Cohen's theory in regard to success goals.

degree (Kuvlesky and Bealer, 1966: 273-274). Therefore, an educational expectation is that level of educational achievement that is anticipated. An occupational expectation is the occupational position in which an individual expects future placement.

C. L. Mondart, Sr. (1969) reported the findings of a study of Louisiana high school students' occupational and educational aspirations and expectations. Aspirations were defined in a manner agreeable with the framework being utilized. Expectations were defined as "an anticipation of what is more likely to occur, even though it may be second best or even undesirable" (Mondart, 1969: 7-8). The manner in which aspiration and expectation were defined, and the region from which the sample of Black and white youth were drawn makes this study relevant to this review. The one shortcoming of this study is that the results were not reported separately for the Black and white portions of the sample. Mondart (1969: 9) reported the following results in regard to the level of educational expectations exhibited by his sample:

One-third of the students expect to complete high school and then enroll in a trade school, or obtain some training at the college level; another one-third plan to work toward a college degree; while the remaining one-third plan to terminate their education with high school graduation.

From these findings, one can infer that Louisiana youth have relatively high educational expectations. However, Mondart's (1969: 11) findings concerning occupational expectations show a degree of inconsistency with the high level of educational expectations reported.

Only twenty-three per cent of the youth in his sample expected to work in professional occupations that require a college education. Mondart's failure to investigate the assumed relationship between education and occupation is a major weakness in this purely descriptive study.

Gerald J. Pine (1964) has investigated the relationship between educational and occupational expectations and delinquent behavior.⁵ The setting for this study was an urban community in New England. Significant relationships were reported to exist between educational expectation and ten of his fifteen delinquency variables. Pine (1964: 110) reported that adolescents planning to attend college exhibited minimum involvement in delinquent offenses as compared to those youth who did not plan to go to college. From the results of this study, it was concluded that delinquent behavior seems to be significantly related to the level of educational expectations (Pine, 1964: 111).

In regard to occupational expectation, Pine (1964: 108) reported that fifty-seven per cent of his sample held professional expectations. Only four per cent of his sample held what could be

⁵The research instrument used to obtain information on the educational and occupational status orientations of the respondents dealt with the realistic dimension termed "expectation" by Kuvlesky and Bealer, not the idealistic dimension termed "aspiration". Therefore, I am reporting Pine's findings in the expectation section of this review of literature.

classified as low-level occupational expectations. The relationship between occupational expectation and his delinquency variables was weak when compared with the observed relationship between educational expectation and the delinquency variables. Only four of the fifteen delinquency variables exhibited a significant relationship (Pine, 1964: 109). Overall, the results of this study seem to indicate that delinquent behavior is significantly related to educational expectations.⁶ Pine (1964: 111) concludes that, "the belief and attitudes one holds in regard to his educational plans and development may be a dynamic factor in the development of delinquent behavior."

Picou and Azuma reported the findings of a study of selected Louisiana ninth grade youth that focused on their educational and occupational projections. Black male youth were sampled from the public schools in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. This group provided an indicator of non-delinquent status orientation. Black male youth in a state industrial school provided information on the status orientation of delinquent youth for this study. It was found that "fifty-six per cent of the non-delinquent respondents, as opposed to only forty-one per cent of the delinquent respondents, planned to receive some college-level educational training" (Picou and Azuma, 1970: 11). In regard to the occupational expectation

⁶Whether or not aspirations are related to delinquent behavior could not be assessed by this study because of the conceptual framework and the research instrument utilized.

level observed, the following findings were reported: a majority of the respondents in both groups exhibited white-collar occupational expectations (Picou and Azuma, 1970: 10). It was concluded that both delinquent and non-delinquent Black males had similar high status occupational expectations, and relatively high educational expectations. The findings of this study for non-delinquent Black youth are in agreement with those of a statewide study conducted by Picou (1969: 113) in 1969.

Models of Educational and Occupational Projections

In the past decade, sociologists working in this area have directed their energies toward the construction and testing of models of occupational attainment. Blau and Duncan (1967: 165-172) developed a path model for the occupational attainment process. The variables considered in their model were father's education and occupation, respondent's education and first job, and the respondent's occupational placement in 1962. When focusing on ethnic differences, they noted that their model was more efficient for white respondents than for Blacks (Blau and Duncan, 1967: 207-241). Furthermore, it has been noted by other researchers (Sewell, et al., 1969: 83) that no social psychological variables, such as "significant other influence", occupational projections, etc., are utilized in the model. Thus, the absence of the above-mentioned intervening variables in the attainment model also limits the explanatory power of it.

In response to their criticisms of the Blau and Duncan model, Sewell and his associates (Sewell, et al., 1969) constructed a social psychological model of the status attainment process that culminates in occupational attainment. Their model can be viewed as an expansion of Blau and Duncan's model utilizing social psychological variables which intervene between the status of the respondent's parents and his status attainment. In Sewell's model, it is noted that:

Parental status and the respondent's mental ability are assumed to influence the encouragement of significant others, which, in turn affects educational and occupational aspirations (Carter, et al., 1972: 5).

These aspirations were hypothesized and shown to influence the educational and occupational status a respondent obtained (Sewell, et al., 1969: 90).

Finally, the results reported by Sewell and his associates (1969: 91) seem to indicate that their social psychological model "has considerable promise for explaining educational and early occupational attainment" of rural youth. Specifically, aspirations were shown to "operate as effective intervening variables in the status attainment process by mediating the effect of parental status on achieved status" (Carter, et al., 1972: 5).

Utilizing the social psychological model of status attainment developed by Sewell and his associates, Carter and his colleagues (1972: 19) investigated "the Black-white differences in status transmission" found by Duncan. It is of interest to note that

Carter and his associates concluded that the results of their study "seem to indicate that the formula Black youth carry around in their heads to determine their aspiration levels places less emphasis on social constraints than the comparable white formula" (Carter, et al., 1972: 2). This comment seems to indicate that it would be advantageous for contemporary researchers to attempt to construct occupational and educational projection models by race.

D. SUMMARY

At this time, it is interesting to point out that the delinquent theories reviewed in the second section, and the studies described in the third section, utilize a class-based technical-functional orientation toward educational and occupational placement. Education is viewed as an important attribute for members of American society to obtain in their quest for economic affluence and social mobility. Consequently, education is seen as a determinant of occupational placement that is capable of providing social mobility. Furthermore, in the technical-functional tradition, formal education is viewed as providing the needed skills for performance of occupational roles in an industrial society. This is an assumption made by studies in the area of educational and occupational projections. The delinquency theories presented focus on behavior frustration of lower-class youth in a society characterized by predominantly middle-class values and virtues that emphasize both

educational and occupational achievement. In the delinquent case, a conflict orientation may provide us with a higher degree of explanatory power.

The preceding review of literature and comments have provided a limited perspective for the formation and implementation of this study.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter an attempt is made to present a theoretical framework that will provide a meaningful frame of reference for interpreting the findings of this investigation.

B. EDUCATIONAL STRATIFICATION

Robert Merton has suggested that certain social and cultural objectives are common to all classes of American society. These "goals, purposes, and interests" provide "legitimate objectives for all or for diversely located members of the society" (Merton, 1957: 132). Furthermore, he (Merton, 1957: 167) asserts that American society is unique in that it is "a society which places a high premium on economic affluence and social ascent for all its members." This emphasis on success goals is reflected in the mass media and the educational process of American society.

In American society, education is generally viewed as an avenue of upward social mobility. Increasing educational requirements for employment in occupations that are capable of providing entrance into the middle class have become a reality (Kahl, 1957:

276-278). Furthermore, educational requirements for placement in occupations that are not capable of providing upward mobility have also increased. Finally, it has been stated that:

Education has become highly important in occupational attainment in modern America, and thus occupies a central place in the analysis of stratification and of social mobility (Collins, 1971: 1002).

Two theoretical approaches to educational stratification will now be presented that attempt to account for the increased educational requirements for occupational placement in American society. They are: (a) a technical-function approach, and (b) a conflict approach. The following presentation has as its basis the work of Randall Collins (1971).

The Technical-Function Approach

The works of Davis and Moore (1945) are good illustrations of the general functional approach to stratification to which the technical-function approach is related. Tumin (1953: 387-388) summarized the functional approach of Davis and Moore to stratification in a number of sequential propositions which are as follows:

- (1) Certain positions in any society are functionally more important than others, and require special skills for their performance.
- (2) Only a limited number of individuals in any society have the talents which can be trained into the skills appropriate to these positions.
- (3) The conversion of talents into skills involves a training period during which sacrifices of one kind or another are made by those undergoing the training.

(4) In order to induce the talented persons to undergo these sacrifices and acquire the training, their future positions must carry an inducement value in the form of differential, i.e., privileged and disproportionate access to the scarce and desired awards which the society has to offer.

(5) These scarce and desired goods consist of the rights and prerequisites attached to, or built into, the positions, and can be classified into those things which contribute to:
a) sustenance and comfort, b) humor and diversion, and
c) self-respect and ego expansion.

(6) This differential access to the basic rewards of the society has as a consequence the differentiation of the prestige and esteem which various strata acquire. This may be said, along with the rights and prerequisites, to constitute institutionalized social inequality, i.e., stratification.

(7) Therefore, social inequality among different strata in the amounts of scarce and desired goods, and the amounts of prestige and esteem which they receive, is both positively functional and inevitable in any society.

The focus of this section is on the second and third propositions, and their application to educational stratification. In this realm, Collins (1971: 1004) has noted that the basic premises of the functional approach become:

(A) that occupational positions require particular kinds of skilled performance; and (B) that positions must be filled with persons who have either the native ability, or who have acquired the training, necessary for the performance of the given occupational role.

The application of this perspective to explain the rising importance of education in industrial society has resulted in the technical-function theory of educational stratification.

The basic ideas of the technical-function approach can be found in the works of Burton Clark (1962) and Clark Kerr and associates (1960). The advocates of this approach explain the

importance of education in modern industrial society by focusing on the need for a trained and motivated labor force for diverse kinds of work and social functions. Raw materials and physical facilities may be obtained in a relatively short amount of time in comparison to the time needed to develop domestically the skilled personnel to utilize them in an efficient manner. In contemporary society, the function of insuring and providing a labor force of highly trained and motivated workers has fallen into the hands of education. Consequently, education now also serves the latent function of selecting individuals who are to be trained and later placed in various occupational positions. In this sense, education has become the primary determinant of a person's "life chances" in a modern industrial society. The fundamental assumption that underlies this approach is that, "there is a generally fixed set of positions, whose various requirements the labor force must satisfy" (Collins, 1971: 1007).

The basic propositions of the technical-function approach have been stated by Collins (1971: 1004) as follows:

- (1) The skill requirements of jobs in industrial society constantly increase because of technological change. Two processes are involved: (a) the proportion of jobs requiring low skill decreases and the proportion requiring high skill increases, and (b) the same jobs are upgraded in skill requirements.
- (2) Formal education provides the training, either in specific skills or in general capacities, necessary for the more highly skilled jobs.
- (3) Therefore, educational requirements for employment constantly rise, and increasingly larger proportions of the population are required to spend longer and longer periods in school.

The Conflict Approach

The basis of this approach to educational stratification can be derived from the writings of Max Weber and Ralph Turner. It has been posited by Weber (1966: 25) that:

For all practical purposes, stratification by status goes hand in hand with a monopolization of ideal and material goods or opportunities, in a manner we have come to know as typical.

The status group is the primary unit in this approach. Its character is very amorphous in comparison to the economically determined class situation. Membership in a given status group "is determined by a specific, positive or negative, social estimation of honor" (Weber, 1966: 24). In general, this estimation of honor is dependent on whether a person shares a common style of life that is characterized by "styles of language, tastes in clothing and decor, manners and other ritual observance, conversational topics and styles, opinions and values, and preferences in sports, arts, and media" (Collins, 1971: 1009). This is the group in which a person gains his identity and with which he feels a sense of community.

Turner's contribution to this approach can be found in his (Turner, 1966: 449-458) description of the "contest" mode of mobility to which American society subscribes. "Contest mobility is a system in which elite status is the prize in an open contest and is taken by the aspirants' own effort," states Turner (1966: 450). In other words, elite status is given to those who have earned it by obtaining the appropriate credentials. The increased emphasis on

higher education as a prerequisite to occupational placement capable of providing upward mobility has brought the educational system into the realm of the contest. A college education has become the primary credential in American society in which achievement is valued highly.

In this technological age, education serves two primary functions or roles. The first is the teaching of skills that relate to the obligations of a given occupational position. In this sense, education can be viewed as a form of vocational training. The second activity of education is the teaching of a specific status culture. In this area, education is viewed as an agent of cultural transmission. Two questions generated by the existence of these two functions are: (1) Which function is to be dominant? and (2) Who controls and dictates the particular status culture, and corresponding value orientation, that is to be taught?

The conflict approach to educational stratification, being presented in this section, focuses on the function of teaching a specific status culture. The first function, mentioned above is secondary and not important, although education may be successful in carrying out this function. With this orientation, the question of who controls and dictates the particular status culture to be taught gains additional importance. If a particular status group controls education, it can use the educational requirements for occupational placement to screen and select new members for

placement within their ranks. By doing so, they are insuring the transmission of their values and style of life.

The mode of upward mobility termed "contest" by Turner (1966: 449-458) is modified. The contest is no longer between individuals who desire upward mobility, but between different status groups for control of the primary credential-producing institution, education. As the demands of industrial society for trained personnel are satisfied by the rising level of education exhibited by the masses, the struggle between status groups heightens for domination of the primary avenue of mobility. The prize in this contest becomes the assurance that individuals from their group, or at least individuals that respect their values and style of life, will be placed in elite positions.

Concisely, this approach focuses on two sets of conditions. The first set of conditions pertains to education as a vehicle, or mechanism, of occupational placement. They are that:

(A) Schools provide either training for the elite culture, or respect for it; and (B) employers use education as a means of selection for cultural attributes (Collins, 1971: 1011).

The second set of conditions pertains to the relationship between level of education and occupational placement. Specifically, they focus on two simultaneous conditions that are conducive to either a strong or weak relationship between education and occupation.

They are:

(A) The type of education most clearly reflects membership in a particular status group, and (B) that group controls employment (Collins, 1971: 1012).

In other words, the relationship between education and occupation is strong when the culture of the groups emerging from school and the status group doing the hiring are similar. The relationship is weak when the opposite conditions exist.¹ The fundamental orientation that underlies the above-mentioned sets of conditions is that they indicate, or reflect, the efforts of competing status groups to control the educational process by imposing their values on it.

Comparison of the Two Approaches

The two approaches presented in this section focus primarily on two different important characteristics of educational stratification. The technical-function approach gives primary consideration to open competition and the role of imparting necessary skills for specific occupational positions. In comparison, the conflict approach gives primary consideration to the role of imparting a particular status culture that is characteristic of the dominant status group. Both approaches recognize that educational stratification involves both skills and values; the difference is found in which characteristic is mainly considered in defining, and in setting the priority of, its functions. This difference has implications on how one delineates what the manifest and latent functions of

¹This section makes no attempt at evaluating the two approaches toward educational stratification. See Collins (1971: 1012-1018) for such an evaluation.

education are for each approach in a complex industrial society. The scope of function for the technical-function approach is society, and its manifest function can be seen as the imparting of skills and knowledge necessary for the functioning of an industrial society. However, the scope of function for the conflict approach to educational stratification is status groups. The manifest function for the conflict approach is seen as the conducting of a screening process that will insure the future status of a given group. In the conflict approach, the imparting of skills and knowledge is viewed as a latent function that holds little importance in comparison to its manifest function.

The Common Problem

Educational stratification can be viewed as a process that develops over a period of years. In other words, performance and attainment in the educational system are viewed in a dynamic, not a static, frame of reference. This process leads to adult achievement in terms of occupational placement. Because of the placement nature of this process, social control becomes a common problem for both the technical-function and conflict approaches. According to Turner (1966: 452):

The most conspicuous control problem is that of ensuring loyalty in the disadvantaged classes toward a system under which they receive less than a proportional share of society's goods.

C. SOCIAL CONTROL

The study of social control is relatively young in American sociology. E. A. Ross (1901) was the first to use the term to specify a specific area of sociological investigation. Up until that time, sociologists only used the term in a descriptive manner. However, speculation about social control is as old as man's written history is.² Yet, "social control is only in the process of being discovered by researchers in...juvenile delinquency (LaPiere, 1954: vi).

The theory of social control that will be presented in modified form in this section was expounded by LaPiere (1954). He devised this conceptual system to "account for conduct that is not wholly explained by socialization and situational interaction" (LaPiere, 1954: v). It is for these same reasons that this section is being presented.³

Personality

Human behavior can be viewed as being the product of three types of forces. The first force is the socialization that an

²See LaPiere (1954: 3-24) for a discussion of the historical origins of social control.

³Past researchers have relied primarily on a socialization frame of reference to explain the development and crystalization of educational and occupational projections. (See Musgrave, 1967; Kuvlesky, 1970; and Picou, 1971).

individual has received. Socialization can be defined as "the process through which the individual acquires the social and cultural heritage of this society" (Bertrand, 1967: 33). Yet, socialization can never be perfect (LaPiere and Farnsworth, 1949: 59). For within a given society, there exists subcultural groups that exhibit different values and styles of life.⁴ Furthermore, "no two individuals can ever be equally socialized...in the greater society or in a particular social system" (Bertrand, 1970: 31). Despite the fact that socialization is never perfect, it is the "process through which a person develops a personality and becomes integrated into a society" (Picou, 1971: 37).

It has been noted above that socialization is never perfect, but it is the process by which an individual develops a personality. Since the process through which an individual develops a personality is never perfect or the same for two individuals, it is very unlikely that any two individuals will have exactly the same personality. Personality may now be defined as:

The individual's unique pattern of traits—the pattern that distinguishes him as an individual and accounts for his unique and relatively consistent ways of interacting with his environment (Coleman, 1960: 75).

A trait is viewed as a distinguishable and relatively enduring biological, psychological, or sociological characteristic of the

⁴ See Azuma (1970) for a discussion of subcultures in regard to delinquent theories. Furthermore, see Warner and Lunt (1942) and Young (1969) for a discussion of subcultural differences in American society.

individual. Traits may be a product of heredity or learning, or both. In other words, traits are the elements that when combined make up an individual's personality.⁵

A large proportion of an individual's personality traits is learned, and represents to a relative degree his socialization into a given culture, and various subcultures. This proportion is seen as the normative attributes of an individual's personality when socialization is relatively successful. The proportion attributed to unsuccessful socialization is termed deviant. LaPiere (1954: 53) noted that this distinction is important in the following manner:

Social control factors operate in general to force the individual to behave normatively on the overt level, whatever his covert inclinations. In other words, social control is by and large a normalizing influence in the determination of human behavior.

In addition, behavior is thought to involve the organization of specific personality traits. What particular personality traits "will enter into a given organization depend...upon the content of the personality itself" (LaPiere, 1954: 75). Thus, the content of personality is an important factor when examining potential behavior.

Situation

The second force that influences human behavior is the situation in which the individual finds himself existing. A situation, according to LaPiere (1954: 57), "is any set of

⁵For a clarification of elements of personality, see LaPiere (1954: 48-51).

circumstances in which a given individual finds himself at any given moment, and in relation to which he behaves." No matter what the situation may be, the first response of an individual to it is the formation of a definition of it. This definition depends upon both the specific situation and the individual's personality which is influenced by his socialization. This "defining the situation" is viewed by LaPiere (1954: 59) as being, "the first step, or phase, in the behavior-making process."

The "definition of the situation" by an individual is not totally dependent on the verifiable, objective nature of it. For an individual defines a given situation as it seems to exist to himself. For as Thomas has noted, "If men define situations as real they are real in their consequences" (Volkart, 1951: 81). Therefore, for a given situation to have an effect on desires and plans of an individual, he must first perceive it as existing in his environment.

"The initial definition that an individual makes of a situation is usually a categorical one," states LaPiere (1954: 59-60). The ability to redefine a situation varies from individual to individual, and from situation to situation. It has been noted by LaPiere (1954: 61) that, "Most people in our society as in any society find it difficult, if not impossible, to redefine certain kinds of situations in terms of situational development." Yet, many individuals do redefine situations in view of additional information and personal experience.

Social Control

In many instances, human behavior is determined by personality and situational factors. However, occasions do frequently arise in which a third force, labeled social control, plays an important part in directing human behavior.⁶

Briefly, LaPiere's (1954: vi) approach to social control as one of the forces determining human behavior is as follows:

...social control often mediates between the personality and the specific situation in which the individual acts. Such control is exercised by relatively small and intimate groups, and it induces conformity to the norms or standards of the group by operating on the individual's desire for social status—more precisely, his need for a kind of status that only such groups provide. The striving for such status becomes, in my theory, not the sole but certainly the most common of the motives that enter into the making of human conduct. And in the theory, man becomes not the rational creature of eighteenth century psychology and most certainly not the unwitting victim of subconscious forces as some current doctrines would have him, but a calculating, because status-seeking, animal.

If man is a calculating status-seeking animal as LaPiere posits him to be, social control exercised by his peer and primary groups becomes important. Both Cohen (1955: 54) and Cloward and Ohlin (1960: 86) in their discussion of status problems, or frustrations, of delinquent youth emphasize the importance of the peer

⁶It is the contention of this researcher that this force may play an important role in the formation of status projections of the groups under investigation. Furthermore, the delinquency theories reviewed in this work focus on status problems and the degree of social control exhibited by peer groups in providing a solution. See the second section of Chapter II in this work for a brief discussion of the delinquency theories concerned.

group. Status problems are defined as "problems of achieving respect in the eyes of one's fellow" (Cohen, 1955: 54). The peer group is viewed as the social mechanism that can provide a solution to the status problems of these youth. With this potential, the peer group is a crucial social control mechanism.

D. BASIC THEORETICAL MODEL

It is suggested, on the basis of the material presented in this chapter, that educational and occupational projections of Black youth can be viewed in a causal framework utilizing the following principle forces: (a) personality, (b) situation, and (c) social control. The first step in constructing the basic theoretical model is the causal ordering of the three principle forces that are hypothesized to culminate in the formation of status projections. LaPiere's discussion on how the three principle forces are related was the primary guideline used in this step. He states:

Social control factors, like situational factors, operate upon and through the personality of the individual who behaves; as has been indicated, they appeal to the individual's regard for his status in a social group. Like situational factors also, they originate outside his personality (LaPiere, 1954: 65).

Therefore, the situational and social control forces are viewed as the exogenous forces in the model. The force termed personality is the intervening force through which the other two forces operate. Status projections are the results of the interdependence of the three forces in the model (Figure I).

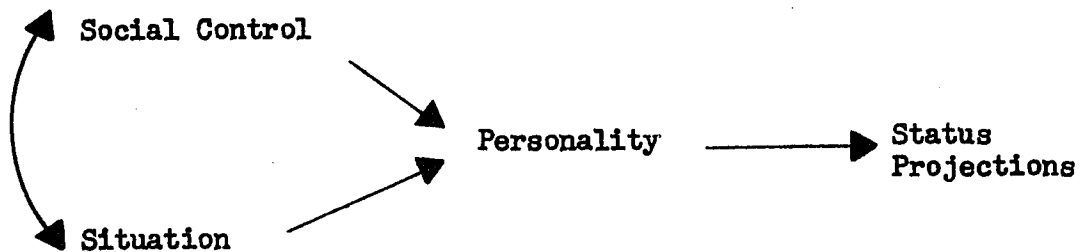


FIGURE I. BASIC THEORETICAL MODEL I.

At this point, one must note that status projections are not a form of behavior. Status projections can be viewed as a sociological trait that is a product of the socialization process that inculcates an individual with skills and cultural values. Thus, LaPiere's (1954: 65) guidelines must be modified, for the result of the proposed theoretical model is a personality trait. It is the researcher's contention that the effects of the control and situational forces on the traits that make up the personality can influence or modify an individual's status projections. The above modification requires that we consider the direct effects of the

control and situational forces upon status projections.⁷ Recognizing this fact, the basic theoretical model to be utilized in this study is presented below (Figure II).

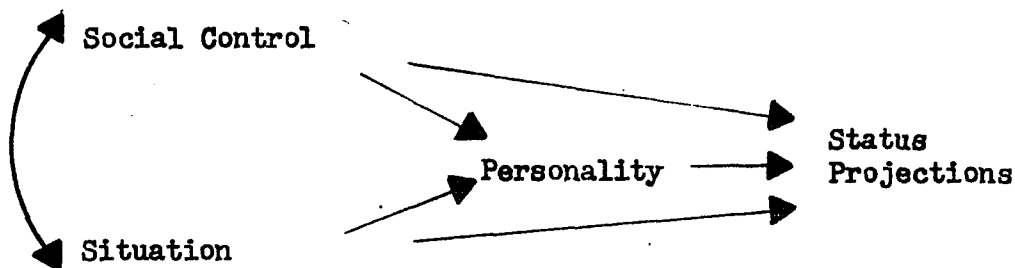


FIGURE II. BASIC THEORETICAL MODEL II.

The specific variables included in this investigation are listed below under their respective force:

- (1) Personality
 - A. Achievement Motivation
 - B. Delayed Gratification
 - C. Achievement Level

⁷The inclusion of the direct effects of the exogenous variables in the model is further warranted by the fact that LaPiere (1954) states that these variables operate upon the personality.

(2) Situation

- A. Perception of Educational Opportunity
- B. Perception of Occupational Opportunity

(3) Social Control

- A. Parental and Teacher Influence
- B. Peer Group Influence

(4) Dependent Variables - Status Projections

- A. Educational Projections
- B. Occupational Projections

E. EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL
PROJECTIONS: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework being used is sociological and social psychological in nature. It has been used by many researchers in the past. In this framework, the respondent is seen as a decision-maker who is a member of a number of social systems. Some of these are so important that their values and norms have an influence on his preferences and behavior (Slocum, 1968: 2). The attitudes and goals of an individual reflect the norms and values of the groups to which he belongs.

Status projection or choice can be divided into two components which can be seen as dimensions of the attitudes an individual holds toward educational and occupational placement.⁸ The

⁸The dividing of status projection into two distinct dimensions has been employed in the past by Blau, Stephenson, and Glick. See the bibliography for formal references in regard to the researchers mentioned.

components of educational and occupational projections that this researcher is investigating are as follows:

(1) Educational Aspiration - the level of educational achievement that an individual desires to attain if he were completely free to pursue his academic interests.

(2) Occupational Aspiration - the specific job that an individual desires to have if he were completely free to choose his future occupation.

(3) Educational Expectation - the level of educational achievement that an individual really expects to attain.

(4) Occupational Expectation - the specific job in which an individual really expects future placement.⁹

F. METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Delinquent Sample

Louisiana has three correctional institutions for juvenile offenders. They are located at (1) Baton Rouge, (2) Monroe, and (3) Pineville. The institutions at Baton Rouge and Monroe were sampled to obtain the delinquent respondents for this study. Pineville was not sampled because its population is composed of only female offenders.

⁹For a more detailed discussion of the above-presented conceptual framework, see Picou (1969) and Azuma (1970).

Ninth and tenth grade Black males in the institutions sampled were administered a questionnaire in small group sessions.¹⁰ The data were collected by this researcher from September 13 to November 20, 1972. The delinquent sample size is seventy, which is approximately the total institutional population of ninth and tenth grade Black males.¹¹

Non-Delinquent Sample

In Louisiana, there is a north-south difference in value orientations and attitudes that has been documented by research conducted in the areas of voting behavior, preferred housing, and eating practices. Furthermore, the north is predominantly characterized as Anglo-Saxon Protestant, while the south is characterized as French Catholic.¹² The non-delinquent sample was drawn in an appropriate manner so as to insure representation of geographic regions that were represented in the delinquent sample.

Once the delinquent sample had been collected, each respondent was classified according to the region of the state in which he lived. The proportion of delinquents from the northern portion

¹⁰The recommendations of the Committee on Humans and Animals as Research Subjects, at Louisiana State University, were followed to safeguard the rights and welfare of the youth involved in this study.

¹¹The population of delinquent youth during the period of time that this researcher was collecting the data in the correctional institution was 73.

¹²See Grenier (1972), Ferrel (1972), and Steelman (1972) for a detailed description of the north-south differences mentioned.

of the state dictated the proportion of non-delinquents that were drawn from that region. The same held true for the southern portion of the state. Baton Rouge was selected to represent the north, while Lake Charles represented the south.¹³ A junior high and a senior high school were selected at random in the two cities mentioned. Homerooms were randomly selected by the head guidance counselor, for each school selected, until the appropriate number of respondents were obtained. The respondents were administered a questionnaire in group sessions. The non-delinquent sample size was seventy-five.¹⁴

Operationalization of Dependent Variables

The educational projections of the respondents were obtained through the use of the following fixed-choice questions:

1. Educational Aspirations

If you could have as much schooling as you desired, which of the following would you do? (Circle one number):

¹³ These two cities were selected for the following reasons: (1) time and financial limitations of this researcher, (2) these cities represented similar regions in the state from which the majority of the delinquent respondents came, and (3) the local school boards gave their approval for the collection of the data needed for this study.

¹⁴ Results presented in this study that are generated from the non-delinquent sample must be interpreted with caution. This researcher was unable to gain the same degree of rapport with the non-delinquent respondents that was obtained with the delinquent group, because of the more formal nature of the non-delinquent interviewing situation.

1. Quit school right now.
2. Complete the ninth grade.
3. Complete the tenth grade.
4. Complete the eleventh grade.
5. Complete high school.
6. Complete a vocational-technical school.
7. Some college but do not plan to graduate.
8. Graduate from college.
9. Complete additional studies after graduation from a college.

2. Educational Expectations

Sometimes we are not always able to do what we want most.

What do you really expect to do about your education? (Circle one number):

1. Quit school right now.
2. Complete the ninth grade.
3. Complete the tenth grade.
4. Complete the eleventh grade.
5. Complete high school.
6. Complete a vocational-technical school.
7. Some college but do not plan to graduate.
8. Graduate from college.
9. Complete additional studies after graduation from a college.

The responses to the above questions were classified in terms of a nine-level educational hierarchy.

The occupational projections of the respondents were determined through the use of the following questions:

1. Occupational Aspirations

If you were completely free to choose any job, what would you desire as a lifetime job? (Please give an exact job.)

ANSWER _____

2. Occupational Expectations

Sometimes we are not always able to do what we want most.
What kind of job do you really expect to have most of your life?
(Please give an exact job.)

ANSWER _____

The responses to the above questions were assigned "Transform to NORC scale" prestige scores (Duncan, 1961: 263-275).

Index Construction

Factor analysis was the principle technique utilized in this research endeavor in the construction of the needed indices. All of the items that were factor analyzed were formulated to compose one of the following seven indices:

- (1) Perception of Educational Opportunity
- (2) Perception of Occupational Opportunity
- (3) Achievement Level
- (4) Achievement Motivation
- (5) Significant Other Influence
- (6) Peer Group Influence
- (7) Deferred Gratification

Principle component factor analysis was utilized in the following index construction procedure. Rummel (1968: 455) states that this technique focuses on patterning the variation in a given set of items. The unrotated factors delineate the largest patterns of relationships in the data. He (Rummel, 1968: 473) states:

The first unrotated factor delimits the most comprehensive classification, the widest net of linkages, or the greatest order in the data.

Thus, the unrotated factor matrix was utilized as the basis for the indices constructed in this study.

All of the items formulated to compose one index were subjected to an unrotated factor analysis (principle component). Items with low factor loadings were eliminated, and the remaining items were again subjected to an unrotated factor analysis. This procedure was repeated until every item composing an index had a factor loading of 0.40000 or greater. The criterion of a factor loading of 0.40000 or greater is arbitrary, but it has been utilized by other researchers as an appropriate critical value in determining whether or not to include a given item in an index (Rummel, 1970).

Index scores were obtained by multiplying the original value of each item composing an index by its corresponding constant weight and summing these products for each individual (Azuma, 1971). The procedure described above was repeated for all seven indices.

At this point, it should be noted that the composition of the indices constructed may have been different if the delinquent and non-delinquent responses had been analyzed separately. This was not done because the comparative nature of this investigation dictated that the indices for both groups be identically constructed.

Difference of Means Test

Two sample difference of means "t" tests were conducted on the indices constructed to investigate any possible delinquent and non-delinquent differences. The "t" test was also applied to the two dimensions of educational and occupational projections to uncover possible differences between the two groups.

Path Analysis

Essentially, the basic idea of path analysis is as follows:

...involves the construction of an oversimplified model of reality in the sense that the model considers only a limited number of variables and relations out of the universe of social reality (Land, 1969: 3-4).

Once the model is constructed, path analysis, which is a modified form of regression analysis, is utilized to evaluate its adequacies or inadequacies as a theoretical model. It should be noted that, "path analysis focuses on the problem of interpretation and does not purport to be a method for discovering causes" (Duncan, 1966: 1). Wright (1960: 444) has noted that:

...Path analysis is an extension of the usual verbal interpretation of statistics, not of the statistics themselves. It is usually easy to give a plausible interpretation of any significant statistic taken by itself. The purpose of path analysis is to determine whether a proposed set of interpretations is consistent throughout.

In this vein, the path models in this study are used as interpretative devices.

It should be noted that unstandardized regression coefficients will be utilized in the path models because of the

comparative nature of this study. Blalock (1967: 675) states that if one:

...wishes to compare populations to determine whether or not the underlying causal processes are basically similar, he should make use of the unstandardized coefficients.

The unstandardized regression coefficients will also be used in the decomposition procedure described by Finney (1972: 175-186) to determine the direct and indirect effects of the variables in the models.

The objective of this study is the comparison of the effects of a given variable for delinquents and non-delinquents. Thus, the comparison of the values of the unstandardized regression coefficients for both groups is used to detect possible differences in the generating processes of status projections. The comparison of coefficients is more important than the fact that they are statistically significant or non-significant. Therefore, non-significant paths were not deleted from the path models.¹⁵

¹⁵See the paper by Carter, Picou, Curry, and Tracy (1972) for an example of the utility of this approach. For additional information on the techniques of path analysis, see the works of Duncan (1966), Land (1969), and Heise (1969).

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

A. INTRODUCTION

The results and discussion of the data analyses are presented in three major sections: (1) index construction, (2) difference of means, and (3) path analysis. The third major section, path analysis, focuses on the path analysis models of the delinquent sample in comparison to the non-delinquent models.

B. INDEX CONSTRUCTION

Seven indices were constructed utilizing the procedure outlined in the Methodological Considerations section of Chapter III. These indices will be presented in this section.

Perception of Opportunity - Education

Ten items were constructed and utilized as indicators of an individual's perception of opportunity in regard to possible educational attainment. As a result of the principle component factor analysis of these items, eight items with a factor loading of 0.40000 or above were retained and utilized in the construction of this index. The items utilized are shown with their means, standard deviations, and factor loadings in Table I. The items range from a

TABLE I
PERCEPTION OF OPPORTUNITY - EDUCATION INDEX

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
8.2 Lack of parent's interest.	3.22069	1.08313	0.73456
8.3 My race.	3.23448	1.04093	0.54814
8.4 Lack of a good high school.	3.23448	1.04093	0.70365
8.5 No technical school or college nearby.	3.26897	0.99481	0.51330
8.7 Not smart enough.	2.96552	1.06337	0.62726
8.8 My own interest in education.	2.84138	1.18835	0.76844
8.9 Obtaining a part-time job.	2.87586	1.13580	0.49948
8.10 What other people think of me.	3.11034	1.09365	0.71272

factor loading of 0.49948 for item 8.9, in which 24.95 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern, to 0.76844 for item 8.8, in which 59.05 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern. The factor loadings were utilized in the index construction procedure described in Chapter III. The mean score for the index constructed was 15.64203 and the standard deviation was 3.67810.

Perception of Opportunity - Occupation

Twelve items were constructed and utilized as indicators of an individual's perception of opportunity in regard to possible future placement in a given occupation. As a result of the principle component factor analysis of these items, eight items with a factor loading of 0.40000 or greater were retained and used in the construction of this index. The items range from a factor loading of 0.40456 for item 5.1, in which 16.37 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern, to 0.79540 for item 5.10, in which 63.27 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern. The items that were utilized in this index are presented in Table II with their corresponding means, standard deviations, and factor loadings. The factor loadings were utilized as constants for their respective items in the index construction procedure as described in Chapter III. The mean score for the index constructed was 14.08647 and the standard deviation was 3.08823.

TABLE II
PERCEPTION OF OPPORTUNITY - OCCUPATION INDEX

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
5.1 Not enough money to go to technical school or college.	2.77931	1.03728	0.40456
5.2 The schools I have gone to.	3.21379	1.08132	0.58619
5.3 Lack of parents' interest.	3.11724	1.21623	0.67981
5.4 Racial discrimination.	3.23448	0.91298	0.45360
5.8 No technical school or college nearby.	3.31034	0.91680	0.61627
5.9 Do not know enough about the opportunities that exist.	2.86207	0.97625	0.42428
5.10 Not smart enough.	2.95862	1.10476	0.79540
5.11 I will not try hard enough.	2.82759	1.31416	0.68248

Parental and Teacher Influence

Four items, which related to the influence that an individual's mother, father, teacher, and guidance counselor have, were utilized as indicators of this variable. As a result of the principle component factor analysis of these items, three items with a factor loading of 0.40000 or greater were retained and utilized in the construction of this index. The items used are presented in Table III. The items range from a factor loading of 0.87968 for the influence of the respondent's father, in which 77.38 per cent of the variance of this item was involved in the factorial pattern; to 0.60639 for the influence of guidance counselors, in which 36.77 per cent of this item's variation was involved in the factorial pattern. The factor loadings were utilized as constants for their respective source of influence in the index construction procedure used as described in Chapter III. The mean score for the index constructed was 9.98431 and the standard deviation was 1.67385.

Peer Group Influence

Seven items were constructed and utilized as indicators of the influence that an individual's peer group has on him in regard to his educational and occupational projections. As a result of the principle component factor analysis of these items, all seven items had a factor loading of 0.40000 or greater, and were retained for use in the construction of this index. The items are presented with their means, standard deviations, and factor loadings in Table IV.

TABLE III
FORMAL SIGNIFICANT OTHER INFLUENCE INDEX

Item		Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
22	In general, my FATHER has (circle one number): 1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school. 2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school. 3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school. 4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school. 5. HAS NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.	4.21379	0.93680	0.87968
23	In general, my MOTHER has (circle one number): 1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school. 2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school. 3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school. 4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school. 5. HAS NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.	4.40000	0.86923	0.87302
12	In general, the <u>teachers</u> I have had in school (circle one number): 1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school. 2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school. 3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school. 4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school. 5. HAVE NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.	4.08966	1.02006	0.60639

TABLE IV
PEER GROUP INFLUENCE INDEX

Item		Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
9.8	Before I do something in school, I consider how my friends will react to it.	1.35172	0.47916	0.50691
9.9	I will stay in school as long as my friends do.	1.11034	0.31441	0.59007
9.10	It is important that I get the same grades my friends do in school.	1.10345	0.30560	0.50596
9.11	My friends feel the same way about school as I do.	1.35172	0.47916	0.58883
9.12	I want to do the same things as my friends in the future.	1.05517	0.22911	0.46078
9.13	In the future I want to work with my friends.	1.51724	0.50143	0.57521
9.14	My friends want to work at the same kinds of jobs that I want to.	1.35172	0.47916	0.53363

The items range from a factor loading of 0.46078 for item 9.8, in which 21.23 per cent of the variance in this item was involved in the factorial pattern, to 0.59007 for item 9.9, in which 34.82 per cent of the variance in this item was involved in the factorial pattern. The factor loadings were used as constants for their respective items in the index construction procedure followed as described in Chapter III. The mean score for the index was 4.70109 and the standard deviation was 0.77794.

Achievement Motivation

The six items utilized in this study were constructed by Picou (1971) to be indicators of this variable. As a result of the principle component factor analysis of these items, five items with a factor loading of 0.40000 or greater were retained and utilized in this index construction. The items used are shown with their means, standard deviations, and factor loadings in Table V. The items range from a factor loading of 0.57725 for item 16.5, in which 33.32 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern, to 0.67459 for item 16.1, in which 45.51 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern. The factor loadings were utilized as constants for their respective items in the index construction procedure as described in Chapter III. The mean score for the index was 5.12321 and the standard deviation was 0.89681.

TABLE V
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION INDEX

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
16.1 I would rather play: a. fun games. b. games where I would learn something.	1.79310	0.40648	0.67459
16.2 When I am sick, I would rather: a. rest and relax. b. try to do my homework.	1.34483	0.47696	0.63814
16.3 After summer vacation, I am: a. glad to get back to school. b. not glad to get back to school.	1.71034	0.47018	0.59951
16.4 I: a. like giving reports before the class. b. do not like giving reports before the class.	1.62069	0.48690	0.63364
16.5 If I were getting better from a serious illness, I would like to: a. spend my time learning to do something. b. relax.	1.75172	0.43351	0.57725

Deferred Gratification

Eight items were constructed and utilized as indicators of this variable. As a result of the principle component factor analysis of these items, all eight items were retained for the construction of this index. The items utilized are presented in Table VI with their means, standard deviations, and factor loadings. The items range from a factor loading of 0.42819 for item 17.1, in which 18.33 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern, to 0.70554 for item 17.8, in which 49.78 per cent of the variance in the item was involved in the factorial pattern. The factor loadings were utilized as constants for their respective items in the index construction procedure as outlined in Chapter III. The mean score for the index was 7.58937 and the standard deviation was 1.22271.

Achievement Level

The verbal intelligence quotient, age, and reading achievement level of the respondents were used in constructing this index.

The psychological tests that were administered by correctional and school personnel that yielded the intelligence quotients were:

- (1) Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test,
- (2) Slosson Intelligence Test,
- (3) Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test, and
- (4) Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Test.

TABLE VI
DEFERRED GRATIFICATION INDEX

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
17.1 Would you be willing to give up your free time to study and get an education?	1.81379	0.39062	0.58128
17.2 Would you be willing to give up working full-time to get an education?	1.68276	0.46702	0.55705
17.3 Would you be willing to let a good job pass by so you could devote all your time and effort to education?	1.40000	0.49160	0.42819
17.4 Would you be willing to give up dating girls to get an education?	1.56552	0.49741	0.55391
17.5 Would you be willing to give up having nice clothes to go to school?	1.61379	0.48857	0.56379
17.6 Would you be willing to take a part-time job and use this money to pay for your education?	1.87586	0.33088	0.48204
17.7 Would you be willing to give up having a car to go to school?	1.56552	0.49741	0.69546
17.8 Would you be willing to give up going to parties to get an education?	1.77931	0.41615	0.70554

The reason for the application of one of these four tests in determining the intelligence quotient scores that were used in the construction of this index was as follows:

The test selected depends on the students' level of functioning in reading and arithmetic. Those students achieving below a fourth grade level are given an individual intelligence test such as the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test or the Slosson Intelligence Test. Those students achieving above the fourth grade level are usually given a group intelligence test such as the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test (Henderson, 1972).

Thus, the correct application of one of the above tests would in fact generate a better set of intelligence quotients for this study than the incorrect application of only one intelligence quotient test to all the respondents.

The Wide Range Achievement Test was the principle source of instructional level of reading for both the delinquent and non-delinquent respondents. The respondents' age on their last birthday was also utilized.

A principle component factor analysis was conducted on the three items mentioned above. The items are presented in Table VII with their means, standard deviations, and factor loadings. The factor loadings were utilized as constants for their respective items in the index construction procedure as described in Chapter III. The mean for the index was 74.66546 and the standard deviation was 17.02302.

TABLE VII
ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL INDEX

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
Intelligence Quotient (Verbal)	85.42742	17.44919	0.90722
Verbal Achievement Level	6.66129	2.51996	0.85572
Age	15.18548	1.05435	-0.57123

C. DIFFERENCE OF MEANS:
DELINQUENT NON-DELINQUENT COMPARISON

The delinquent non-delinquent status projection differences presented in Table VIII were highly significant. Non-delinquent Black youth had higher educational aspirations ($\bar{X}_2 = 7.827$) than their delinquent counterparts ($\bar{X}_1 = 6.657$). Relatively the same condition existed at the educational expectation level: the non-delinquent mean was 7.300 while the delinquent mean was 6.000. The occupational aspiration mean for the non-delinquents was 73.080 and higher than the delinquent mean of 64.600. A similar condition existed between occupational expectation means of the two groups where the delinquent mean was 62.300 and the non-delinquent mean was 68.590. Overall, the results indicate that non-delinquents have higher educational and occupational aspirations and expectations than delinquents.

In addition, the mean values for educational aspirations for both delinquents and non-delinquents are higher than those mean values for expectations. This observed hierarchy is in agreement with the findings reported by Picou (1971: 91) in his study of Louisiana youth.

The observed achievement motivation difference in Table IX between the delinquent and non-delinquent groups was not statistically significant. The mean deferred gratification score for the delinquent respondents was 7.433 and significantly lower than the

TABLE VIII
DELINQUENT NON-DELINQUENT STATUS PROJECTION DIFFERENCES

Status Projection Variables	Delinquent Means (\bar{X}_1)	Non-Delinquent Means (\bar{X}_2)	Differences of Means ($\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$)	Standard Error ^a ($\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$)
Educational Aspiration	6.657	7.827	-1.170 **	0.286
Educational Expectation	6.000	7.300	-1.300 **	0.275
Occupational Aspiration	64.600	73.080	-8.480 **	1.267
Occupational Expectation	62.300	68.590	-6.290 **	1.848

** - Significant difference at the 0.01 level.

TABLE IX
DELINQUENT NON-DELINQUENT PERSONALITY TRAIT DIFFERENCES

Personality Trait Variables	Delinquent Means (\bar{X}_1)	Non-Delinquent Means (\bar{X}_2)	Differences of Means ($\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$)	Standard Error ^s ($\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$)
Achievement Motivation	5.256	5.014	0.242 N.S.	0.148
Deferred Gratification	7.433	7.788	-0.355 **	0.120
Achievement Level	66.002	85.534	-19.532 **	2.373

** - Significant difference at the 0.01 level.

N.S. - Non-significant difference.

non-delinquent mean of 7.788. The non-delinquent sample exhibited a mean achievement level of 85.534 which was significantly greater than the delinquent mean level of 66.002.

In Table X, situational and control variable differences between the delinquent and non-delinquent groups are presented. No statistically significant difference was found between the delinquent and non-delinquent samples in regard to perception of occupational opportunity and influence of parents and teachers. The observed difference between perception of educational opportunity mean scores was significant. The delinquent perception of educational opportunity mean was 14.878, while the non-delinquent mean was 16.640. Furthermore, the non-delinquent mean indicating the average influence of parents and teachers ($\bar{X}_2 = 10.415$) was significantly larger than the delinquent mean ($\bar{X}_1 = 9.614$).

D. PATH MODELS: A DELINQUENT NON-DELINQUENT COMPARISON

All the variables included in the difference of means section of this study are incorporated in the delinquent and non-delinquent path models. The basic theoretical model, presented in Chapter III, was the principle guideline followed in placing the variables in the path models. The basic path model utilized for both the delinquent and non-delinquent respondents for each of the components of status projections being investigated is shown in Figure III.

TABLE X
DELINQUENT NON-DELINQUENT SITUATIONAL AND CONTROL DIFFERENCES

Situational and Control Variables	Delinquent Means (\bar{X}_1)	Non-Delinquent Means (\bar{X}_2)	Differences of Means ($\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$)	Standard Error $s(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)$
Perception of Educational Opportunity	14.878	16.640	-1.762 **	0.592
Perception of Occupational Opportunity	13.641	14.590	-0.040 N.S.	0.520
Peer Group Influence	4.680	4.863	-0.183 N.S.	0.140
Influence of Parents and Teachers	9.614	10.415	-0.801 **	0.290

** - Significant difference at the 0.01 level.

N.S. - Non-significant difference.

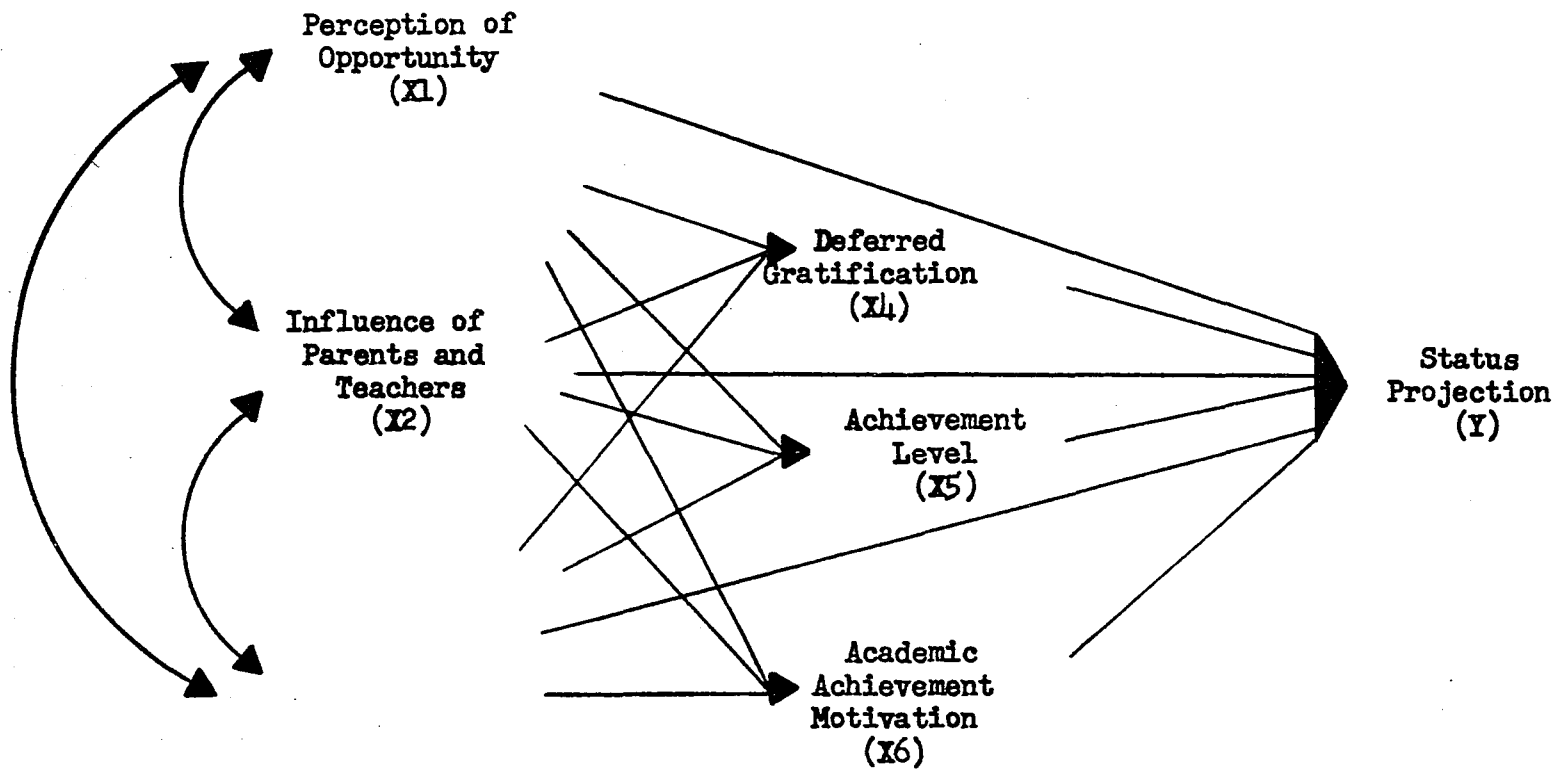


FIGURE III. BASIC PATH MODEL

Educational Projections

The zero-order correlations for the six independent variables and educational projections for the delinquent and non-delinquent groups are presented in Table XI. Relatively strong correlations were observed between educational aspirations and expectations for both delinquents and non-delinquents. These findings indicate that, for both groups, educational aspirations are relatively consistent with educational expectations.

The unstandardized regression coefficients and coefficients of determination for the delinquent and non-delinquent educational projection models are presented in Table XII.¹ Figures IV and V are presentations of the educational aspiration and educational expectation models respectively, that were utilized for both delinquents and non-delinquents. A word of caution before examining Table XII: it is important to be aware of the fact that we will only examine direct effects in this table. In the presentation of Table XIII, the indirect effects of the variables in the path model will be discussed.

Some interesting findings emerge when looking at the personality trait equations as a group for the delinquent and non-delinquent respondents. First, the effect of peer group

¹ Standardized regression coefficients will be presented in Appendix B for the delinquent and non-delinquent educational projection models.

TABLE XI
ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS FOR DELINQUENT
AND NON-DELINQUENT EDUCATIONAL PROJECTION MODEL¹

Variables	X1a	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	Y1	Y2
X1a	-----	.098	-.361*	.179	.173	.216	.051	-.050
X2	.189	-----	-.226	.051	.288*	.210	.270*	.070
X3	-.077	-.087	-----	-.288*	.019	-.210	-.232	-.140
X4	-.059	.174	-.152	-----	.002	.518*	.463*	.567*
X5	.223	.248*	-.194	-.124	-----	-.016	.218	.225
X6	.011	.230	.117	.297*	.017	-----	.414*	.394*
Y1	.254*	.394*	-.258*	.235*	.389*	.030	-----	.668*
Y2	.101	.249*	-.192	.112	.295*	.048	.547*	-----

¹Correlations above the diagonal are for non-delinquents and those below the diagonal are for delinquents.

* - Significant correlation at the 0.05 level or greater.

The variables are represented as follows:

X1a - Perception of Educational Opportunity
X2 - Influence of Parents and Teachers
X3 - Peer Group Influence
X4 - Deferred Gratification

X5 - Achievement Level
X6 - Academic Achievement Motivation
Y1 - Educational Aspiration
Y2 - Educational Expectation

TABLE XII
UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS FOR
EDUCATIONAL PROJECTION MODEL FOR DELINQUENT AND NON-DELINQUENT YOUTH

Delinquency Category and Dependent Variables	Independent Variables						Coefficient of Determination R ²
	X1a	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	
Non-Delinquents							
X4	0.032	-0.019	-0.489				0.0896
X5	1.011	4.648*	4.089				0.1251
X6	0.042	0.137	-0.156				0.0936
Y1	-0.059	0.161	-0.236	0.356*	0.017	0.332	0.3491
Y2	-0.110*	-0.096	-0.152	0.589*	0.026*	0.329	0.4398
Delinquents							
X4	-0.034	0.115	-0.202				0.0599
X5	0.540	1.238	-2.233				0.1202
X6	-0.006	0.114*	0.141				0.0724
Y1	0.067	0.240*	-0.240	0.359*	0.045*	-0.191	0.3422
Y2	0.006	0.145	-0.229	0.144	0.036	-0.019	0.1454

*Denotes coefficients that were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level or higher.

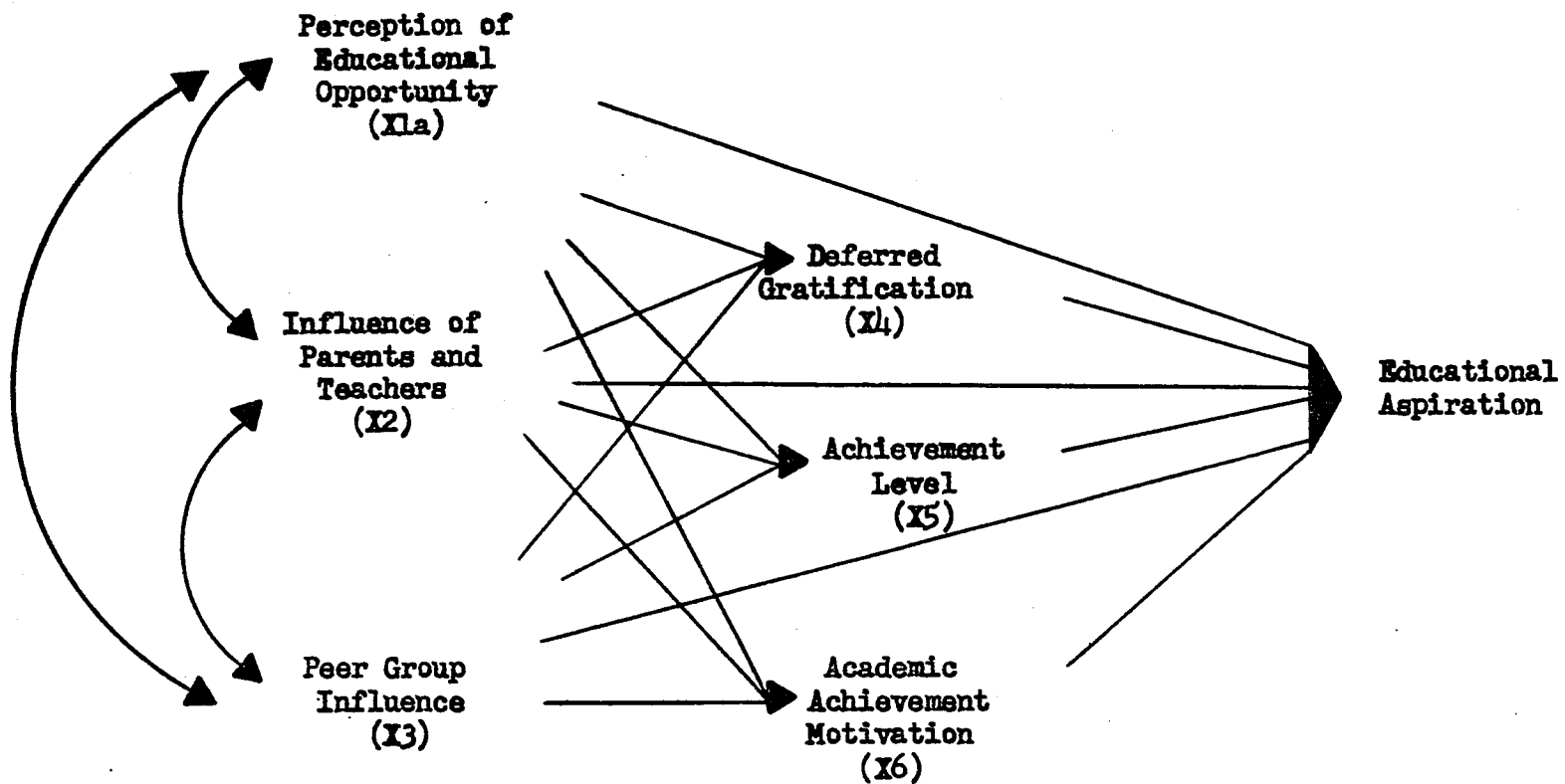


FIGURE IV. EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION PATH MODEL

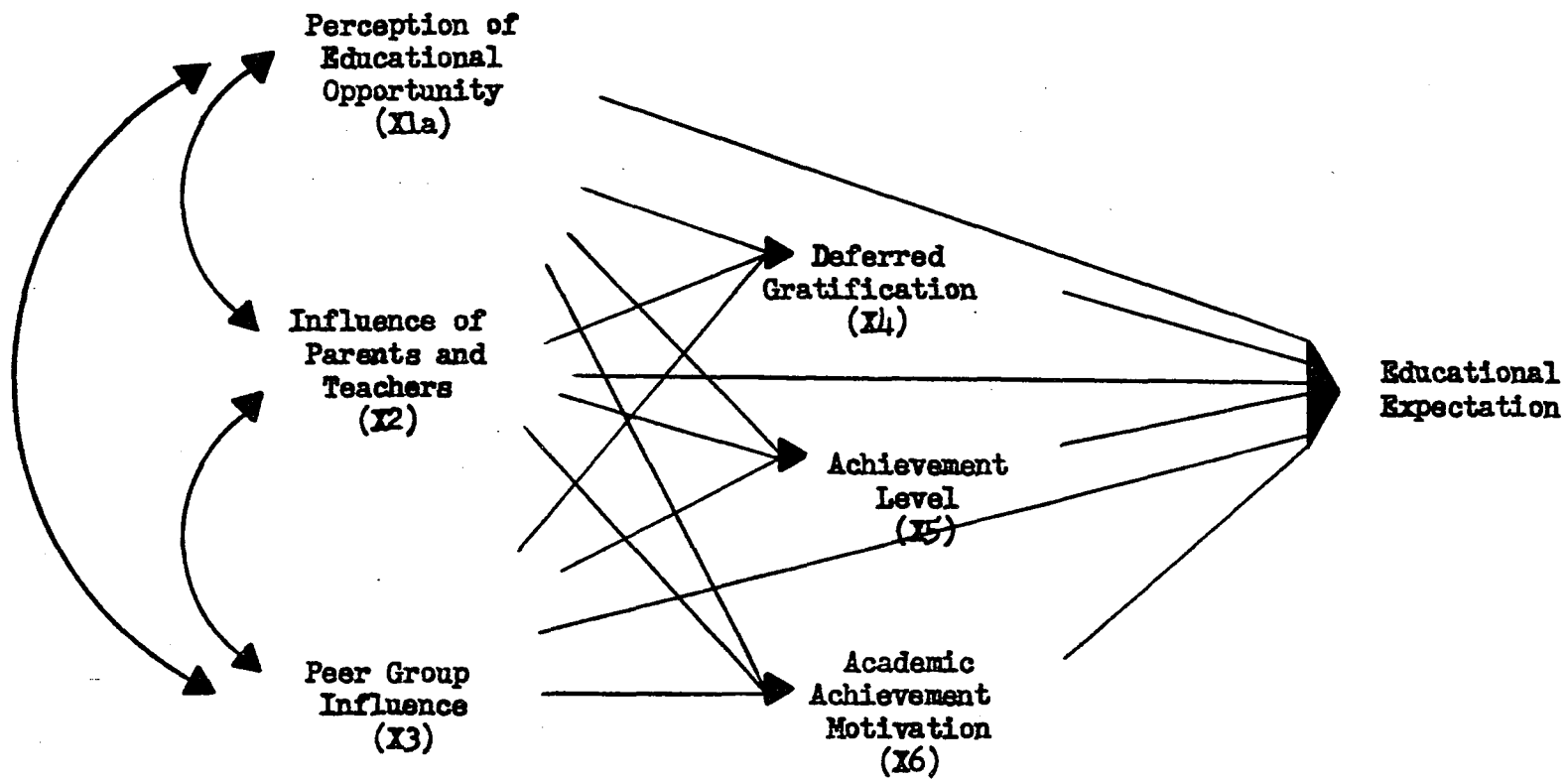


FIGURE V. EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATION PATH MODEL

influence is smaller for the delinquent group in every case.

Second, the perception of educational opportunity has a positive effect on all personality traits considered for the non-delinquents. However, in the delinquency set of personality trait equations, perception of educational opportunity has a negative effect on deferred gratification and academic achievement motivation.

Of particular interest are the findings in regard to deferred gratification that emerge when examining these equations as a group. The differences between the delinquent and non-delinquent equations are mixed in the size of effects and the direction. First, the perception of educational opportunity has a positive effect for non-delinquents and a negative effect for delinquents. Second, the influence of parents and teachers has a negative effect for the non-delinquents and a positive effect for delinquents. Finally, the negative effect of peers for delinquents is smaller than the negative effect for non-delinquents.

For educational aspirations, the magnitude of all the independent variable effects, except academic achievement motivation, are larger for the delinquent group. However, the patterns of delinquent and non-delinquent differences in regard to directionality are mixed. Perception of educational opportunity has a negative effect on non-delinquent aspiration levels, but the reverse is true for the delinquent respondents. Achievement motivation has a positive effect for non-delinquents, and a

negative effect for delinquents. Finally, of special interest is the fact that peer group influence for both groups has a negative effect which is contrary to past findings. This finding will be discussed in more detail later in Chapter V.

All the exogenous variables for the non-delinquent educational expectation model exhibit a negative direct effect. Peer group influence is the only exogenous variable in the delinquent model that has a direct negative effect. Of the endogenous variables in the models, achievement motivation is the only one that has a negative direct effect. Achievement motivation has a positive effect for non-delinquents and a negative one for delinquents. Furthermore, the effect of achievement motivation is larger for non-delinquents than for delinquents. Finally, it is interesting to note that the coefficient of determination is greater for non-delinquents than delinquents. At the aspiration level, the amount of explained variance was approximately equal, but as noted, the basic model breaks down for delinquents at the expectation level. Hopefully, the examination of indirect effects will enhance the understanding of how the model breaks down for delinquents.

Table XIII presents the decomposition of unstandardized effects for the educational projection model for delinquent and non-delinquent youth. At the aspiration level, one first notes that the total effects of each exogenous variable for the delinquent respondents are greater than the corresponding effects for the non-delinquents in this study. Perception of educational opportunity

TABLE XIII
DECOMPOSITION OF UNSTANDARDIZED EFFECTS FOR
EDUCATIONAL PROJECTION MODEL FOR DELINQUENTS AND NON-DELINQUENTS

Delinquency Category and Dependent Variables	Source	Independent Variables					
		X1a	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6
Non-Delinquent Y1	Total	-0.017	0.278	-0.392	0.356	0.017	0.332
	Direct	-0.059	0.161	-0.236	0.356	0.017	0.332
	X4	0.011	-0.007	-0.174			
	X5	0.017	0.079	0.070			
	X6	0.014	0.045	-0.052			
Delinquent Y1	Total	0.080	0.315	-0.439	0.359	0.045	-0.191
	Direct	0.067	0.240	-0.240	0.359	0.045	-0.191
	X4	-0.012	0.041	-0.072			
	X5	0.024	0.056	-0.100			
	X6	0.001	-0.022	-0.027			
Non-Delinquent Y2	Total	-0.051	0.059	-0.385	0.589	0.026	0.329
	Direct	-0.110	-0.096	-0.152	0.589	0.026	0.329
	X4	0.019	-0.011	-0.288			
	X5	0.026	0.121	0.106			
	X6	0.014	0.045	-0.051			
Delinquent Y2	Total	0.020	0.203	-0.311	0.144	0.036	-0.019
	Direct	0.006	0.145	-0.229	0.144	0.036	-0.019
	X4	-0.005	0.016	-0.029			
	X5	0.019	0.044	-0.080			
	X6	0.000	-0.002	-0.003			

and peer group influence have a negative total effect for the non-delinquents in comparison with the positive total effect of perception of educational opportunity and negative total effect of peer group influence for the delinquent respondents.

The indirect effect of perception of educational opportunity is similar for both groups in regard to magnitude. Directionally, the only difference is observed in that portion of the indirect effect that is mediated through deferred gratification. The delinquents exhibit a negative effect, while the opposite is the case for the non-delinquents.

Two interesting findings are observed when examining the indirect effect of the influence of parents and teachers. First, in the non-delinquent case, the portion of the indirect effect mediated through deferred gratification is negative in nature; in the delinquent case, it is positive. Second, in the non-delinquent case, the portion of the indirect effect mediated through achievement motivation is positive in nature; in the delinquent case, the reverse is true.

As mentioned before, the total and direct effects of peer group influence for both groups are negative in nature and similar in magnitude. The indirect effects for both groups mediated through deferred gratification and achievement motivation are also similar in directionality and magnitude. The only difference observed is in the directionality of the indirect effect of peer

group influence mediated through achievement level. In the delinquent case, this effect was negative on the aspiration level held by the respondent; the reverse was true for the non-delinquent group.

At the expectation level, the first thing noticeable is that the patterns of differences are mixed. Therefore, the decomposition of the total effects of the exogenous variables will be presented separately for each variable.

The total effect for perception of educational opportunity was negative and larger for non-delinquents in comparison with the smaller positive total effect of this variable for the delinquents. The indirect effects of this variable moderated through the intervening variables in the model were positive and larger for non-delinquents. Furthermore, the portion of the indirect effect moderated through deferred gratification was negative for the delinquent respondents.

The total effect for the influence of parents and teachers on educational expectation was larger for delinquents than for non-delinquents. However, the portion of the indirect effect of this variable moderated through deferred gratification had a negative effect on non-delinquent educational expectations; the reverse was true for delinquents. Finally, the portion of the indirect effect moderated through achievement motivation had a negative impact on expectations for the delinquent respondents, as opposed to a positive impact for non-delinquents.

The indirect effect of peer group influence on educational expectation is greater for non-delinquents than delinquents. All portions of the indirect effects that are moderated through the intervening variables have a negative impact on expectations for delinquents. The only exception for non-delinquents is the portion of the indirect effect of peer group influence that is moderated through the intervening variable achievement level.

Occupational Projections

The zero-order correlations for the six independent variables and occupational projections for the delinquent and non-delinquent groups are presented in Table XIV. Relatively strong correlations were observed between the components of occupational projections for both delinquent and non-delinquent respondents. These findings indicated that for both groups occupational aspirations are relatively consistent with occupational expectations for both delinquent and non-delinquent youth.

The unstandardized regression coefficients and coefficients of determination for the delinquent and non-delinquent occupational projection models are presented in Table XV.² In the proceeding discussion of the findings presented in this table, only the direct effects of the variables of the path models will be considered.

²Standardized regression coefficients will be presented in Appendix B for the delinquent and non-delinquent occupational projection models.

TABLE XIV
ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS FOR DELINQUENT
AND NON-DELINQUENT OCCUPATIONAL PROJECTION MODEL¹

Variables	X1b	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	Y3	Y4
X1b	-----	.249	-.280*	.240	.212	.265*	.194	.149
X2	.124	-----	-.226	.051	.288*	.210	-.019	-.020
X3	-.088	-.087	-----	-.288*	.019	-.210	-.311*	-.330*
X4	-.016	.174	-.152	-----	.002	.518*	.321*	.341*
X5	-.034	.248*	-.194	-.124	-----	-.016	.085	.114
X6	-.079	.230	.117	.297*	.017	-----	.214	.133
Y3	-.027	.228	-.143	.207	.140	.058	-----	.544*
Y4	.029	.199	-.042	.046	-.076	.023	.454*	-----

¹Correlations above the diagonal are for non-delinquents and those below the diagonal are for delinquents.

* - Significant correlations at the 0.05 level or greater.

The variables are represented as follows:

X1b - Perception of Occupational Opportunity
X2 - Influence of Parents and Teachers
X3 - Peer Group Influence
X4 - Deferred Gratification

X5 - Achievement Level
X6 - Academic Achievement Motivation
Y3 - Occupational Aspiration
Y4 - Occupational Expectation

TABLE XV
UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS FOR
OCCUPATIONAL PROJECTION MODEL FOR DELINQUENT AND NON-DELINQUENT YOUTH

Delinquency Category and Dependent Variables	Independent Variables						Coefficient of Determination R ²
	X1a	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	
Non-Delinquents							
X4	0.075	-0.058	-0.466				0.1130
X5	0.995	4.161	3.342				0.1189
X6	0.057	0.108	-0.170				0.1063
Y3	0.262	-1.642	-4.580	1.913	0.084	0.951	0.1856
Y4	0.056	-1.607	-5.623*	2.969	0.118	-0.689	0.2087
Delinquents							
X4	-0.019	0.106	-0.199				0.0517
X5	-0.307	1.490*	-2.464				0.0979
X6	-0.028	1.117*	0.135				0.0814
Y3	-0.172	0.943	-0.946	1.563	0.088	-0.393	0.1041
Y4	-0.038	1.258	-0.603	-0.132	-0.126	-0.222	0.0597

*Denotes coefficients that were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level or higher.

Figures VI and VII are presentations of the occupational aspiration and occupational expectation models utilized for both the delinquent and non-delinquent groups.³

Examining the effects of the exogenous variables as a group, as shown in Table XV, some patterns emerge. First, the effect of perception of occupational opportunity is positive for all the endogenous variables for the non-delinquent respondents. The reverse is true for the delinquent respondents. In addition, the effect of perception of occupational opportunity is larger for non-delinquents than for delinquents. Second, the effect of the influence of parents and teachers on deferred gratification is negative and smaller for non-delinquents as compared to the positive and larger effect exhibited by the delinquents. Third, the influence of parents and teachers has a larger impact on the achievement level of non-delinquents than delinquents. Finally, the peer group influence has a negative effect on achievement level for delinquents and a positive effect for non-delinquents.

The first thing one notes when comparing the delinquent and non-delinquent occupational aspiration equations is that the coefficient of determination is larger for the non-delinquent group. Also, every independent variable except achievement level affects

³Path models for both groups of respondents will be presented in Appendix B for occupational projections.

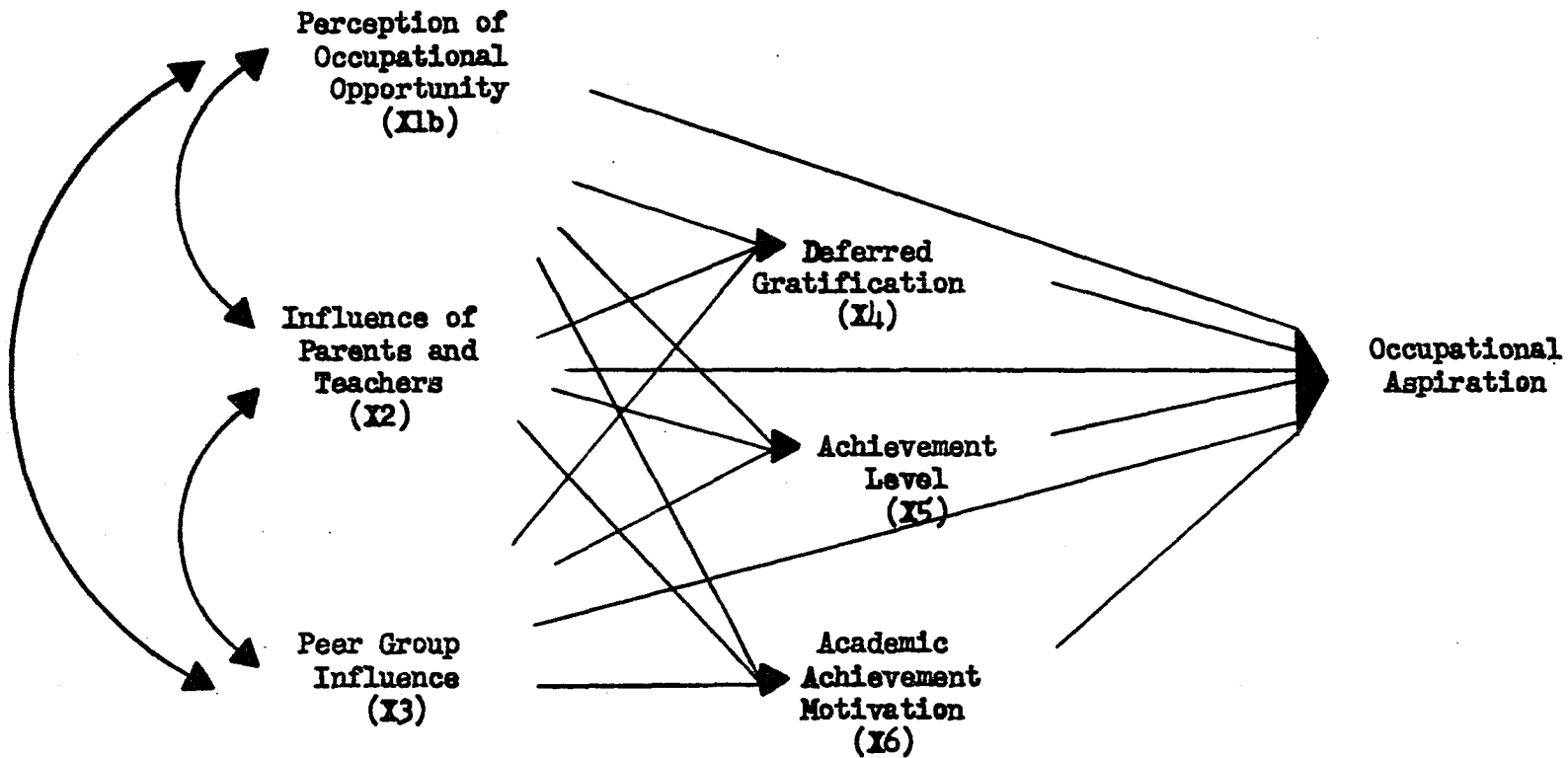


FIGURE VI. OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION PATH MODEL

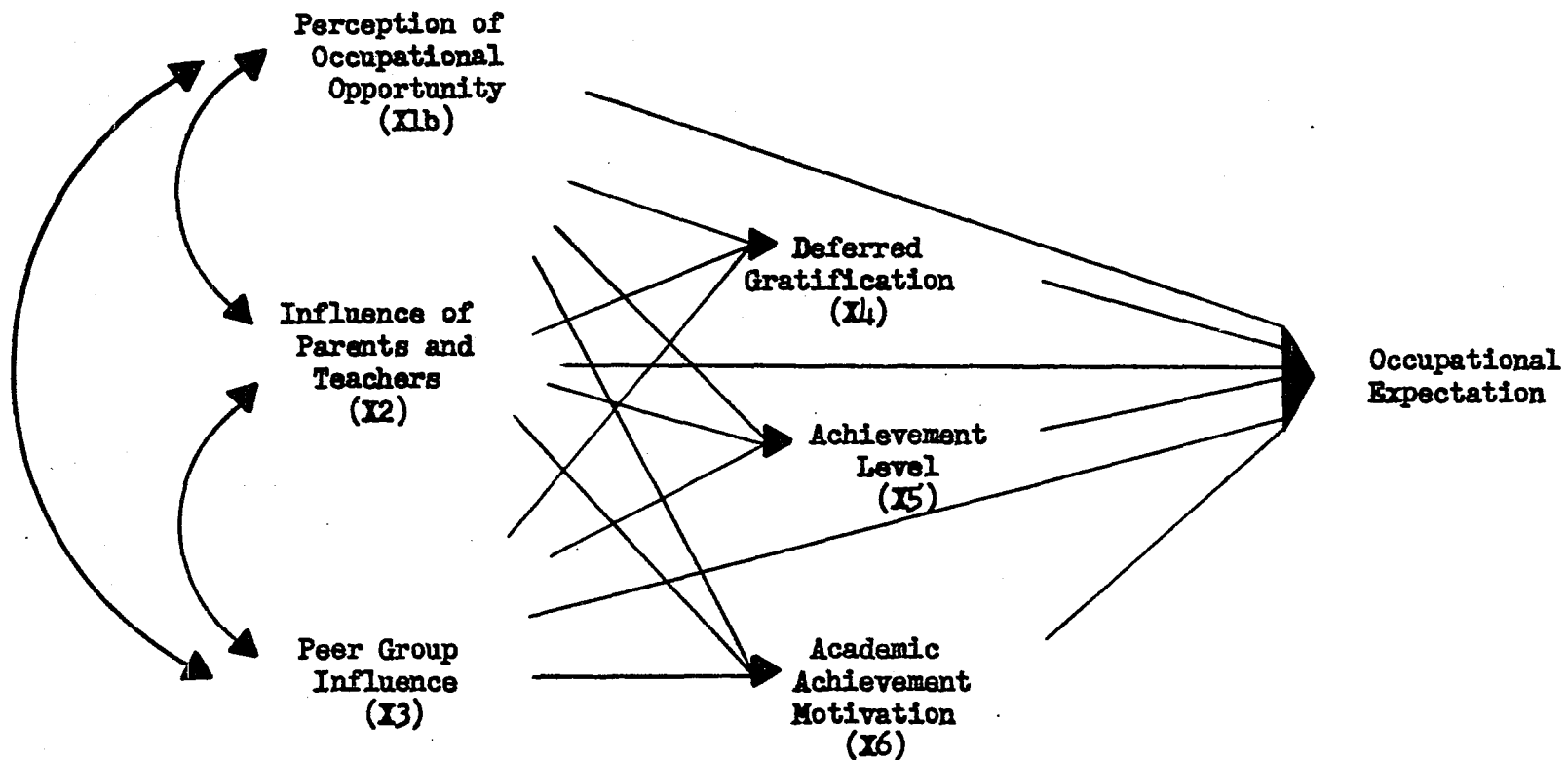


FIGURE VII. OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION PATH MODEL

occupational aspirations differently for delinquents as compared to non-delinquents. Three of the more interesting findings are:

(1) Perception of occupational opportunity has a positive effect for non-delinquents as compared to a smaller negative effect for delinquents.

(2) Influence of parents and teachers has a negative effect for non-delinquents and a smaller positive one for delinquents.

(3) Peer group influence has a large negative effect for non-delinquents and a smaller negative one for delinquents.

When examining the occupational expectation equation in Table XV, one notes two striking differences. They are:

(1) The non-delinquent coefficient of termination is much larger than the delinquent one.

(2) There are no similarities between the delinquent and non-delinquent equations for occupational expectations.

In Table XVI, the decomposition of unstandardized effects for the occupational projection model is shown for delinquent and non-delinquent youth. Differences are observed in magnitude, or direction, of the total effect for each exogenous variable considered when comparing the delinquent and non-delinquent models at the aspiration level. Since the differences are mixed, the decomposition of the total effects of the exogenous variables will be presented separately for each variable.

TABLE XVI
DECOMPOSITION OF UNSTANDARDIZED EFFECTS FOR
OCCUPATIONAL PROJECTION MODEL FOR DELINQUENTS AND NON-DELINQUENTS

Delinquency Category and Dependent Variables	Source	Independent Variables					
		X1a	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6
Non-Delinquent Y3	Total	0.543	-1.300	-5.353	1.913	0.084	0.951
	Direct	0.262	-1.642	-4.580	1.913	0.084	0.951
	X4	0.143	-0.111	-0.891			
	X5	0.084	0.350	0.281			
	X6	0.054	0.103	0.162			
Delinquent Y3	Total	-0.218	1.194	-1.415	1.563	0.088	-0.393
	Direct	-0.172	0.943	-0.946	1.563	0.088	-0.393
	X4	-0.030	0.166	-0.199			
	X5	-0.027	0.131	-0.217			
	X6	0.011	-0.046	-0.053			
Non-Delinquent Y4	Total	0.357	-1.363	-6.496	2.969	0.118	-0.689
	Direct	0.056	-1.607	-5.623	2.969	0.118	-0.689
	X4	0.223	-0.172	-1.384			
	X5	0.117	0.490	0.394			
	X6	-0.039	-0.074	0.117			
Delinquent Y4	Total	0.010	1.030	-0.297	-0.132	-0.126	-0.222
	Direct	-0.038	1.258	-0.132	-0.132	-0.126	-0.222
	X4	0.003	-0.014	0.026			
	X5	0.039	-0.188	0.310			
	X6	0.006	-0.926	-0.030			

At the occupational aspiration level, the total effect for perception of occupational opportunity is positive for non-delinquents and negative for delinquents. The indirect effect of this variable for non-delinquents is completely positive in nature. In the delinquent case, it is only positive for that portion of its indirect effect that is mediated through academic achievement motivation.

The total effect of the influence of parents and teachers on the occupational aspiration level that a respondent possesses is negative for non-delinquents and positive for delinquents. The differences observed in the decomposition of the effect of this variable are mixed and minor in regard to magnitude. The most notable difference is found when comparing the direct effect of this variable for delinquent and non-delinquent respondents. This difference was discussed in the preceding section focusing on the direct effects of the variables in the model.

The negative total effect for peer group influence is much larger for non-delinquents in comparison to the one exhibited by the delinquent respondents in this study. The only portion of the indirect effect of this variable that is positive in nature is the portion that is mediated through achievement level in the non-delinquent model.

At the occupational expectation level, the total effects of all the exogenous variables considered in this study are larger for

the non-delinquents. Furthermore, all the indirect effects of these variables are larger for the non-delinquents. These findings are felt to be in agreement with the findings noted in the discussion of Table XV in regard to the lack of similarities at this level and relatively large difference found between the coefficient of determination for the delinquent and non-delinquent models.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present: (1) a summary and discussion of the major findings of this study, (2) a discussion of the theoretical implications these findings have, and (3) the limitations of this study and implications it has for future research.

B. SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

This study has focused upon the educational and occupational orientations of delinquent Black male youth in comparison to non-delinquent Black male youth. The dimensions of educational and occupational orientations that were investigated are: (1) aspirations, and (2) expectations. The other variables that were focused upon in this study are: (1) perception of opportunity, (2) achievement level, (3) achievement motivation, (4) peer group influence, (5) influence of parents and teachers, and (6) deferred gratification. The findings of this study are presented below.

Educational Aspirations and Expectations

Significant differences were detected when comparing delinquent and non-delinquent aspiration and expectation levels in the

area of education. The non-delinquent mean scores for both dimensions of educational orientation were higher than their delinquent counterparts. This finding is in partial agreement with the findings of an earlier study conducted by this researcher (Azuma, 1970: 54-59). In the earlier study, a difference was observed when comparing aspiration levels of delinquents and non-delinquents, but the observed difference was not statistically significant. Furthermore, in the area of educational expectations, it was found that both delinquents and non-delinquents had similar high status educational expectations. In this area, the findings of this study contradict those of the earlier study. The above results and discrepancies seem to indicate that the educational orientations of delinquent Black youth have undergone some change in relationship to those of their non-delinquent counterparts. The lower expectation level of the delinquent youth could indicate a more realistic estimation of future attainment in view of the stigma attached to being labeled a delinquent.

Occupational Aspirations and Expectations

Differences were uncovered that were statistically significant when comparing delinquent and non-delinquent occupational aspiration and expectation levels. The non-delinquent mean scores for both dimensions of occupational orientation were higher than that exhibited by their delinquent counterparts. The difference observed at the aspiration level was greater than the one that

existed at the expectation level. These findings disagree with those presented in an earlier study by Picou and Azuma (1970: 9-10). Picou and this researcher reported that the occupational orientation for delinquent and non-delinquent Black males was similar. However, the difference observed may be, in part, attributed to the use of a different classification system that placed different occupations in a given category with a predetermined rank. Thus, variation within a given category was not considered in the analysis conducted for the 1970 study. In this study, this weakness was minimized by the utilization of Duncan's (1961: 263-275) socio-economic index scores for different occupations.

Secondary Findings

A comparison was also made between the delinquent and non-delinquent independent variables utilized in this study. This portion of the study yielded the following information:

1. The non-delinquent perception of educational opportunity mean score was higher than that exhibited by the delinquent group. The observed difference between mean scores was significant.
2. No statistically significant difference was detected between the delinquent and non-delinquent youth in regard to perception of occupational opportunity.
3. The non-delinquent respondents exhibited a higher mean achievement than the delinquent respondents. The difference between mean scores was significant.

4. The observed achievement motivation difference between the delinquent and non-delinquent groups was not statistically significant.

5. Peer group influence mean scores for both groups were similar. No statistically significant difference was found.

6. Influence of parents and teachers mean scores for both groups were significantly different. The non-delinquent group exhibited a higher mean score than the delinquent group.

7. The non-delinquent deferred gratification mean score was larger than the delinquent mean score. The difference was significant statistically.

Path Models

The basic theoretical model presented in Chapter III was utilized in the construction of path models for each dimension of educational and occupational orientations. Non-significant paths were not deleted from the path models because of the emphasis on the comparative nature of this study. The following findings were yielded from this portion of the investigation:

1. Overall, the path models utilized may be evaluated as a step in the right direction. This statement is based on the fact that specific variables in the models exhibited relatively strong causal relationships. For example, deferred gratification had a relatively large effect on educational orientations for both

groups in this study. However, this variable has not been utilized for previous studies in this area of research.

2. The most efficient model in this study, in terms of explained variance, was the educational expectation model for non-delinquents. Overall, all the educational orientation models for both groups explained more variance than the occupational models. This finding seems plausible in view of the young age of the respondents in this study. Education is part of their daily lives; occupation is not as immediate.

3. Generally, the non-delinquent models explained more variance and had larger direct and indirect effects than their corresponding delinquent models. Furthermore, the variable of deferred gratification had the largest direct effect on educational and occupational projections for both groups.

4. When comparing the educational aspiration models for both groups in this study, it was noted that the amount of explained variance for delinquents and non-delinquents was similar. The magnitude of all the direct effects of the variables utilized, except academic achievement motivation, was larger for the delinquent group. Three notable directional differences were noted. Academic achievement motivation had a positive direct effect on educational aspirations for non-delinquents; the opposite was the case for the delinquent group. Second, perception of educational opportunity had a negative effect on non-delinquent aspirations,

but the reverse was true for the delinquents. Finally, peer group influence for both groups was negative in nature and similar in magnitude. The difference observed was in the directionality of the indirect effect of this variable mediated through achievement level. In the delinquent case, this effect was negative on the aspiration level held by the respondents; the reverse was true for the non-delinquent group.

5. When evaluating the educational expectation models in terms of the amount of explained variance for each, it was noted that the non-delinquent model explained a much greater amount of variance than the delinquent model. Several notable differences were found at this level of educational projections. The direct effects of deferred gratification and academic achievement motivation were found to be much smaller for the delinquent youth. In addition, achievement motivation had a positive direct effect for the non-delinquents and a negative one for the delinquents. Another directional difference was noted: the direct effect of the influence of parents and teachers was negative for the non-delinquents and positive for the delinquents. However, an interesting finding emerged when examining the indirect effects of this variable. In the non-delinquent case, the portion of the indirect effect mediated through achievement motivation was positive; the reverse was true in the delinquent case.

6. At the aspiration level for occupational projections, the non-delinquent model explained almost twice the amount of variance as the delinquent model. Focusing on direct effects, one notes that every independent variable, except achievement level, affects occupational aspirations differently for delinquents as compared to non-delinquents. The largest comparative difference observed was for the variable peer group influence. Non-delinquents exhibited a relatively large negative direct effect for this variable; the delinquents exhibited a much smaller negative effect. The only portion of the total effect of this variable that was positive in nature was the portion of the indirect effect that was mediated through achievement level in the non-delinquent model. Another notable difference observed was in regard to the direct effect of perception of occupational opportunity. This variable had a positive effect for non-delinquents as compared to a smaller negative one for delinquents. The only portion of the total effect of this variable that was positive was the portion of the indirect effect that was mediated through achievement level in the non-delinquent model. Achievement level seemed to be acting as the crucial intervening variable that redirects the effects of the exogenous variables of peer group influence and perception of occupational opportunity.

7. When comparing the occupational expectation models for delinquents and non-delinquents, two striking differences were observed. They were: (1) the explained variance for the

non-delinquent model was much larger; and (2) there was a lack of similarity between the delinquent and non-delinquent models. It is at this point that the general model utilized in this study begins to break down completely for the delinquent group.

C. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

Related Delinquency Theories

The findings of this study have theoretical implications in regard to the utility of applying delinquency theories with a subcultural orientation to educational and occupational projections of delinquent Black male youth. The theoretical perspectives of Cloward and Ohlin, Miller, and Sykes and Matza were considered in this area.

The findings of this study indicated that non-delinquent Black males have higher educational and occupational aspirations. This finding is in disagreement with the position taken by Cloward and Ohlin, and Sykes and Matza, that delinquent youth aspire to the same level as their non-delinquent counterparts. Furthermore, Miller's perspective that delinquent youth should exhibit the same low aspiration levels as non-delinquent youth was not supported. However, the above finding is in agreement with the position assumed by Cohen, that if delinquent youth perceive blockage in the possible attainment of middle-class goals, they will exhibit a lower educational and occupational orientation than non-delinquent

youth. In view of these findings, Cohen's perspective is the most viable one to apply when investigating the educational and occupational orientations of delinquent Black male youth. In addition, the observed differences between delinquent and non-delinquent levels of perception of educational and occupational opportunities lend only partial support to the overall position of Cloward and Ohlin, and full support to Cohen's overall position.

Basic Theoretical Model

Overall, the basic theoretical model utilized in this study appears to have considerable potential in the area of educational and occupational projection research focusing on Black respondents. The different path models used were evaluated as a step in the right direction for three reasons. First, the models in this study explained a relatively larger amount of variance in comparison to past studies. Second, in three of the four path models used, the personality group of variables had a noticeable mediating effect on the influence of the situational and control variables. Finally, the variable of deferred gratification was found to have relatively larger effects than the other independent variables for both groups under investigation. It was also a crucial intervening variable in the comparative portion of this study. However, it must be pointed out that only a small amount of the variance observed in the personality group of variables was accounted for by the situational and control variables utilized. Thus, more work

is needed to locate the determinants of the personality group of variables if the optimistic evaluation of the basic model is to become a reality.

Several differences were uncovered when the delinquent and non-delinquent group comparison was conducted on the path models for each group. At the educational aspiration level, the situational variable of perception of opportunity had a negative total and direct effect for the non-delinquent group, but the delinquent group exhibited just the opposite effect. However, the indirect effects of the situational variable mediated through the personality group of variables were positive in nature. The indirect effects of the situational variable for delinquents were more consistent with their direct and total effects in regard to direction. The only portion of the total effect that was negative was that proportion mediated through the personality variable of deferred gratification. Utilizing Cloward and Ohlin's perspective, it is normally hypothesized that perception of opportunity would exert a positive direct effect on educational aspiration. This relationship was stronger for the delinquent respondents than for the non-delinquents in this study. Another notable difference at the educational aspiration level is the difference in magnitude and direction of the direct effects of achievement motivation exhibited by both groups.

When the delinquent and non-delinquent educational expectation models were observed and compared, two very distinct

differences were observed when the effects of the personality group of variables were examined. Deferred gratification had a much larger positive effect on educational expectations for the non-delinquents than for the delinquents. Second, academic achievement motivation had a large positive effect for the non-delinquent respondents as compared to the smaller negative effect for the delinquents. In addition, it was at this level that this researcher found the largest difference in explained variance for the two groups.¹ These findings indicated that at this dimension of educational projection, the effects of the delinquents' personality group of variables deteriorate in comparison to that observed in the non-delinquent model. Also, the proportion of the total effects of the situational and control variables on educational expectation mediated by the personality variables was smaller for the delinquents. These findings provided a partial explanation for the large difference between the delinquent and non-delinquent coefficients of determination.

At the occupational aspiration level, perception of occupational opportunity had a positive total effect for non-delinquents and a smaller negative total effect for delinquents. The only portion of the total effect for perception of occupational opportunity that was positive for the delinquent group was mediated through the

¹The non-delinquent model had a coefficient of determination of 0.44, while the delinquent model exhibited one of 0.15.

intervening variable of academic achievement motivation. If one assumes that perception of opportunity is influenced by social constraints, the above findings show that the occupational aspirations of delinquents are not consistent with the social constraints with which they are confronted.

Differences were also observed for the social control variables in the occupational aspiration models. The variable of influence of parents and teachers had a negative total effect for non-delinquents and a smaller positive one for delinquents. The indirect effects mediated by achievement level and achievement motivation were positive for the non-delinquents. The only positive indirect effect of the influence of parents and teachers was mediated by academic achievement motivation for delinquents. In addition, peer group influence had a large negative total effect for non-delinquents and a smaller negative one for delinquents. The indirect effects mediated by achievement level were positive for the non-delinquents. The indirect effects for delinquents were all negative in nature. These findings indicated that non-delinquent occupational aspirations experienced a greater positive indirect effect originating from the social control variables than did the delinquent group.

The results of the delinquent non-delinquent comparison of occupational expectation models showed that the basic model used in this study was of little utility for the delinquent group at this level. The small amount of explained variance for the delinquent

model at this level of occupational projections lends full support to the above contention.

Overall, the results of this study support the use of the basic theoretical model in the areas of education aspirations and expectations, and occupational aspirations, when delinquent and non-delinquent groups are to be compared.

D. LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Comparative research on educational and occupational orientations of delinquent and non-delinquent Black youth using path models is nonexistent. This lack of research precludes any comparison of the findings stemming from the use of path models in this study with past studies. Obviously, more research will be necessary in order to determine whether or not the model used is an adequate approximation of the dynamics of educational and occupational orientations. Therefore, the findings presented in this study are considered to be tentative and requiring further research and development.

One of the major limitations of this study stems from the manner in which some of the independent variables were operationalized. Specifically, work is needed in the construction of a deferred gratification index that utilizes occupationally related items other than educational ones. The deferred gratification index used in this study was constructed from items that relate only to the realm of education. In addition, an achievement index needs to be constructed utilizing occupational items to which

Black youth can relate. This study used an index that related mainly to education. The above suggestions seem pertinent in view of contemporary work that is questioning the technical function relationship between educational attainment and occupational placement. In the future, researchers in the area of status orientations may not be able to assume that a positive relationship exists between the skills that education provides and occupational placement.

The path analysis portion of this study revealed that deferred gratification manifested a relatively strong independent effect on the dependent variables. It was also an important intervening variable in the path models when detecting differences between the delinquent and non-delinquent groups. It is strongly suggested that future researchers in this area incorporate this variable into their investigations. Furthermore, this variable should be a reminder to future researchers to utilize the insights of their predecessors to gain a better understanding of the social phenomena they are to investigate. This variable has illustrated the cumulative nature of scientific research, and the advantage of guarding against premature closure in regard to the insights of the past for this researcher.

It should also be noted that this study, and other studies in the area of status projections, have ignored the possible importance of the stigma of delinquency and the labeling of self in

in relationship to the principle of the self-fulfilling prophecy. Future studies should definitely attempt to investigate the possible importance of the above-mentioned variables and principles in relationship to delinquent status orientations.

In conclusion, it is hoped that this study will stimulate further research in this area. Thus, the cumulative nature of science will become a reality, and hopefully we will gain a better understanding of the dynamics of status orientations for Black delinquent youth.

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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

No. _____

LOUISIANA YOUTH STUDY

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

THIS IS NOT A TEST! There are no right or wrong answers.

We are only interested in finding out your opinions about some important matters.

We hope that you will cooperate to make this a good study by answering all the questions as frankly and honestly as you can. We appreciate your help very much. If you have a problem in answering any question, or do not understand a question, please raise your hand and someone will assist you immediately. Please answer all the questions, even if you have to guess!

1. How old were you on your last birthday? _____
2. What is the name of the city, town, village, or community you have lived most of your life? _____
3. If you were completely free to choose any job, what would you desire as a lifetime job? (Please give an exact job.)

ANSWER _____

4. Sometimes we are not always able to do what we want most. What kind of job do you really expect to have most of your life? (Please give an exact job.)

ANSWER _____

5. How much effect do you think each of the following things will have in keeping you from getting the job you desire? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH THING.)

Very Much Much Some Not At All

4	3	2	1	Not enough money to go to technical school or college.
4	3	2	1	The schools I have gone to.
4	3	2	1	Lack of parents' interest.
4	3	2	1	Racial discrimination.
4	3	2	1	Don't want to move.
4	3	2	1	Good jobs are getting too scarce in the U. S.
4	3	2	1	Lack of good job opportunities in or near my community.
4	3	2	1	No technical school or college nearby.
4	3	2	1	Don't know enough about the opportunities that exist.

Very Much Much Some Not At All

4 3 2 1 Not smart enough.

4 3 2 1 I do not know the right
people.

4 3 2 1 I will not try hard enough.

6. If you could have as much schooling as you desired, which of following would you do? (Circle one number):

1. Quit school right now.
2. Complete the ninth grade.
3. Complete the tenth grade.
4. Complete the eleventh grade.
5. Complete high school.
6. Complete a vocational-technical school.
7. Some college but do not plan to graduate.
8. Graduate from college.
9. Complete additional studies after graduation from a college.

7. Sometimes we are not always able to do what we want most. What do you really expect to do about your education? (Circle one number):

1. Quit school right now.
2. Complete the ninth grade.
3. Complete the tenth grade.
4. Complete the eleventh grade.
5. Complete high school.
6. Complete a vocational-technical school.
7. Some college but do not plan to graduate.
8. Graduate from college.
9. Complete additional studies after graduation from a college.

8. How much effect do you think each of the following things will have in keeping you from getting the education you desire? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH THING.)

Very Much Much Some Not At All

4 3 2 1 Not enough money to go to
school.

Very Much	Much	Some	Not	At All	
4	3	2	1		Lack of parents' interest.
4	3	2	1		My race.
4	3	2	1		Lack of a good high school.
4	3	2	1		No technical school or college nearby.
4	3	2	1		Don't know enough about the opportunities that exist.
4	3	2	1		Not smart enough.
4	3	2	1		My own interest in education.
4	3	2	1		Obtaining a part-time job.
4	3	2	1		What other people think of me.

9. Listed below are some general statements about friends. (Mark each item Yes or No.)

Yes No

___ ___ Before I do something, I consider how my friends will react to it.

___ ___ When I say mean things to my friends, I feel sorry afterwards.

___ ___ When I think I am right, only my friend can change my mind.

___ ___ I do what I want to do, whether my friends like it or not.

___ ___ A person is better off if he doesn't trust anyone.

___ ___ I find it hard to drop or break with a friend.

Yes No

- ___ ___ A guy's only protection is his friends.
- ___ ___ Before I do something in school, I consider how my friends will react to it.
- ___ ___ I will stay in school as long as my friends do.
- ___ ___ It is important that I get the same grades my friends do in school.
- ___ ___ My friends feel the same way about school as I do.
- ___ ___ I want to do the same things as my friends in the future.
- ___ ___ In the future I want to work with my friends.
- ___ ___ My friends want to work at the same kinds of jobs that I want to.

10. Write the names of three friends below, and the amount of education and the job you think they desire.

Friend's Name	Education Desired	Future Job Desired
1) _____	_____	_____
2) _____	_____	_____
3) _____	_____	_____

11. In general, my parents have (circle one number):

1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
5. HAVE NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.

12. In general, the teachers I have had in school (circle one number):

1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
5. HAVE NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.

13. In general, my friends have (circle one number):

1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
5. HAVE NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.

14. In general, my high school guidance counselor has (circle one number):

1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
5. HAVE NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.

15. Are your mother and father (circle one number):

1. Both alive, living together.
2. Both alive, separated.
3. Both alive, divorced.
4. Father not living.
5. Mother not living.
6. Neither father nor mother living.

16. Listed below are a number of statements concerning attitudes you may hold. For each question, circle the one answer you feel best describes your opinion:

1. I would rather play:
 - a. fun games.
 - b. games where I would learn something.
2. When I am sick, I would rather:
 - a. rest and relax.
 - b. try to do my homework.
3. After summer vacation, I am:
 - a. glad to get back to school.
 - b. not glad to get back to school.
4. I:
 - a. like giving reports before the class.
 - b. don't like giving reports before the class.

5. If I were getting better from a serious illness, I would like to:
- spend my time learning to do something.
 - relax.
6. When I do things to help at home, I prefer to:
- do usual things I know I can do.
 - do things that are hard and I am not sure I can do.
17. Listed below are a number of things that most people look forward to. Would you be willing to sacrifice those things while getting an education? (MARK EACH ITEM YES OR NO.)
- | Yes | No | |
|-----|-----|---|
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to give up your free time to study and get an education? |
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to give up working full-time to get an education? |
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to let a good job pass by so you could devote all your time and effort to education? |
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to give up dating girls to get an education? |
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to give up having nice clothes to go to school? |
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to take a part-time job and use this money to pay for your education? |
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to give up having a car to go to school? |
| ___ | ___ | Would you be willing to give up going to parties to get an education? |
18. What was the highest school grade completed by your FATHER?
(Write your answer below.)
- ANSWER _____
19. What was the highest school grade completed by your MOTHER?
(Write your answer below.)
- ANSWER _____

20. What is your father's job? (Try to be as exact as possible.)

ANSWER _____

21. What is your mother's job? (Try to be as exact as possible.)

ANSWER _____

22. In general, my FATHER has (circle one number):

1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
5. HAS NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.

23. In general, my MOTHER has (circle one number):

1. STRONGLY DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
2. DISCOURAGED me from going to school.
3. ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
4. STRONGLY ENCOURAGED me to go to school.
5. HAS NOT INFLUENCED me one way or the other concerning going to school.

24. In general, most of my close FRIENDS (circle one number):

1. Are going to college.
2. Are not going to college, probably going to work.
3. OTHER _____

PLEASE PRINT YOUR NAME.

First Name	Middle Initial	Last Name
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THANK YOU FOR HELPING.

APPENDIX B
DELINQUENT AND NON-DELINQUENT
PATH MODELS

IDENTIFICATION OF VARIABLES

PE - Perception of Educational Opportunity

PO - Perception of Occupational Opportunity

SI - Influence of Parents and Teachers

PI - Peer Group Influence

DG - Deferred Gratification

AL - Achievement Level

AM - Academic Achievement Motivation

EDASP - Educational Aspiration

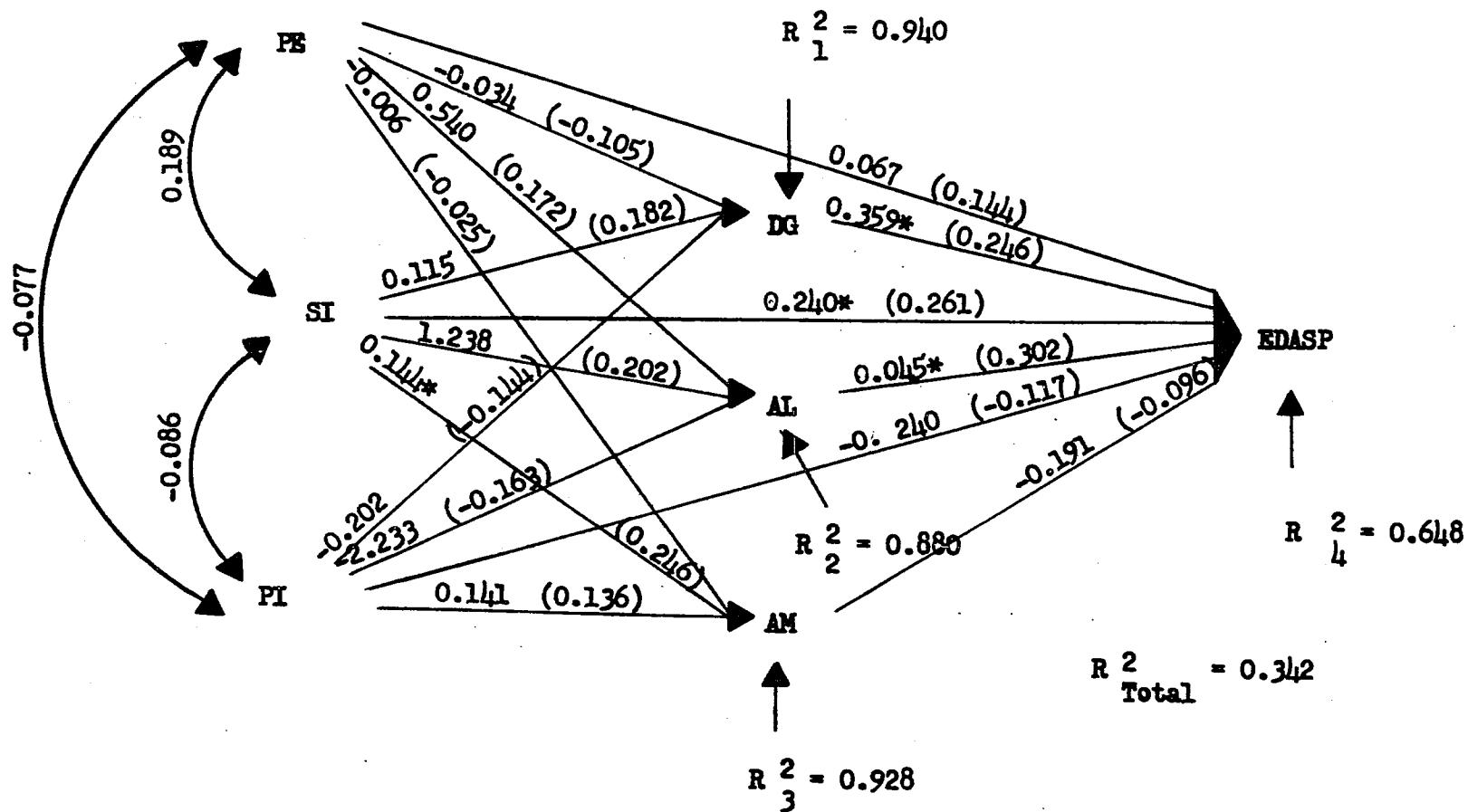
EDEXP - Educational Expectation

OCASP - Occupational Aspiration

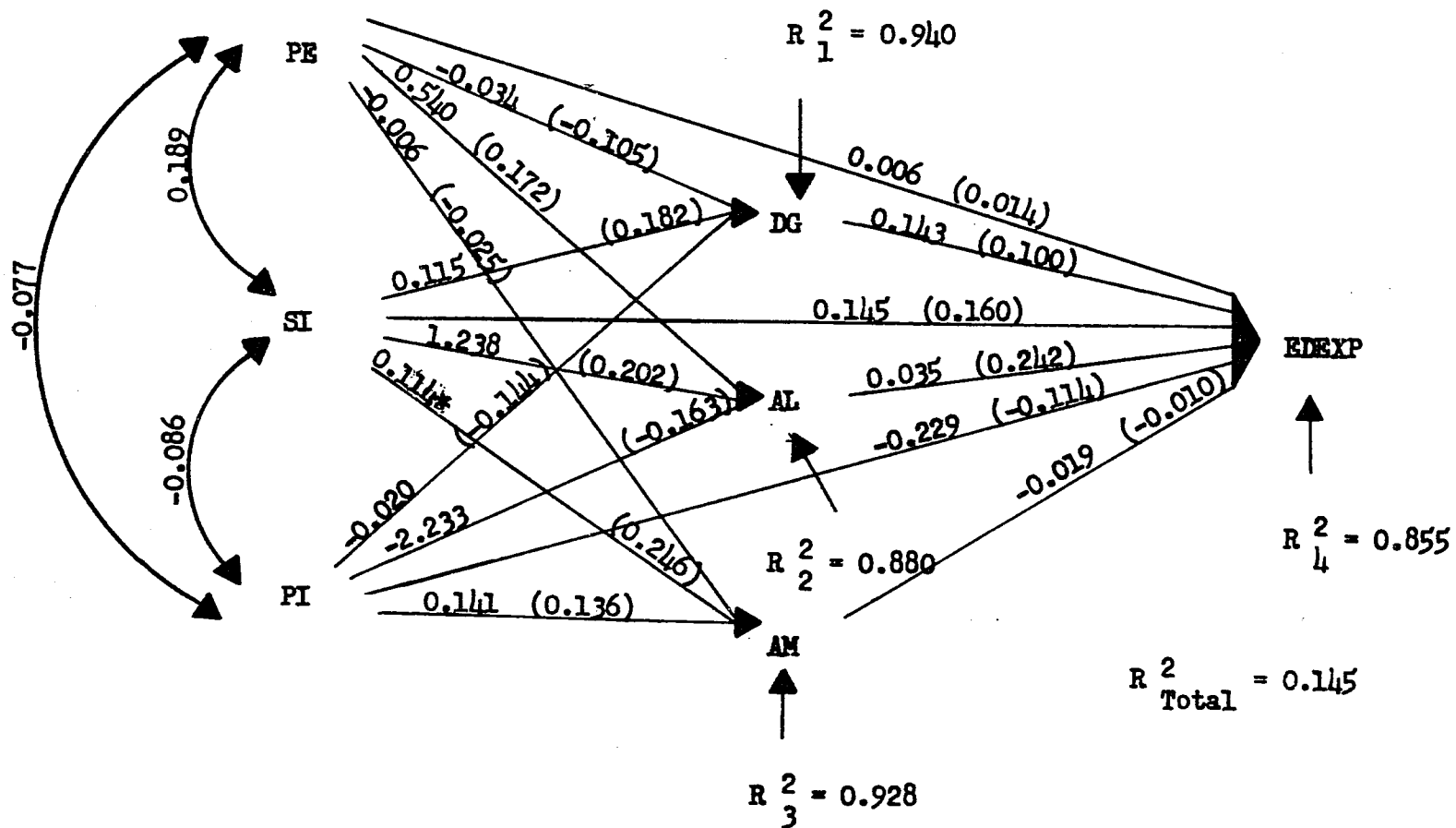
OCEXP - Occupational Expectation

* - Significant at the 0.05 level.

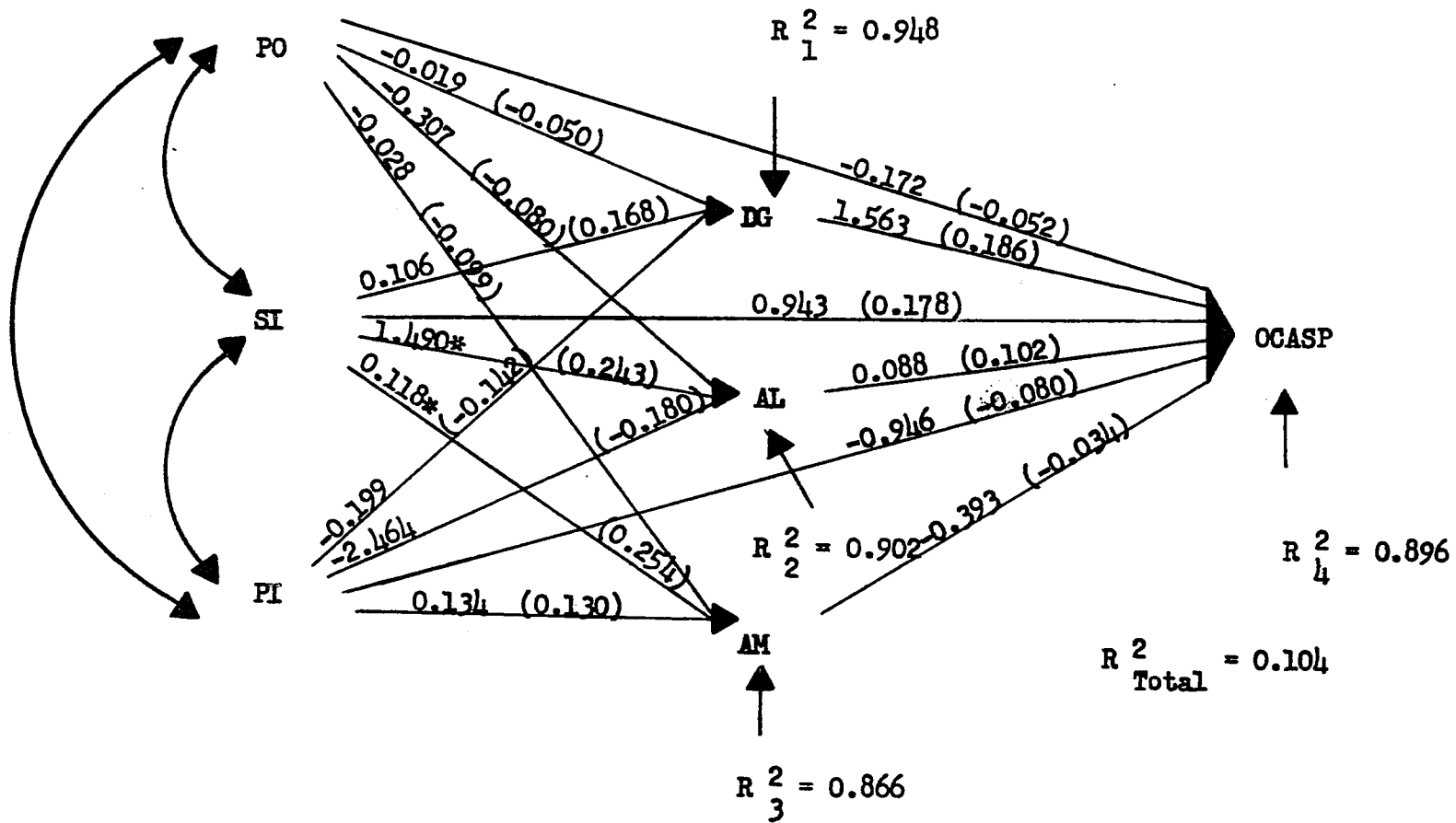
Standardized and unstandardized path coefficients are presented. Coefficients in parentheses are standardized.



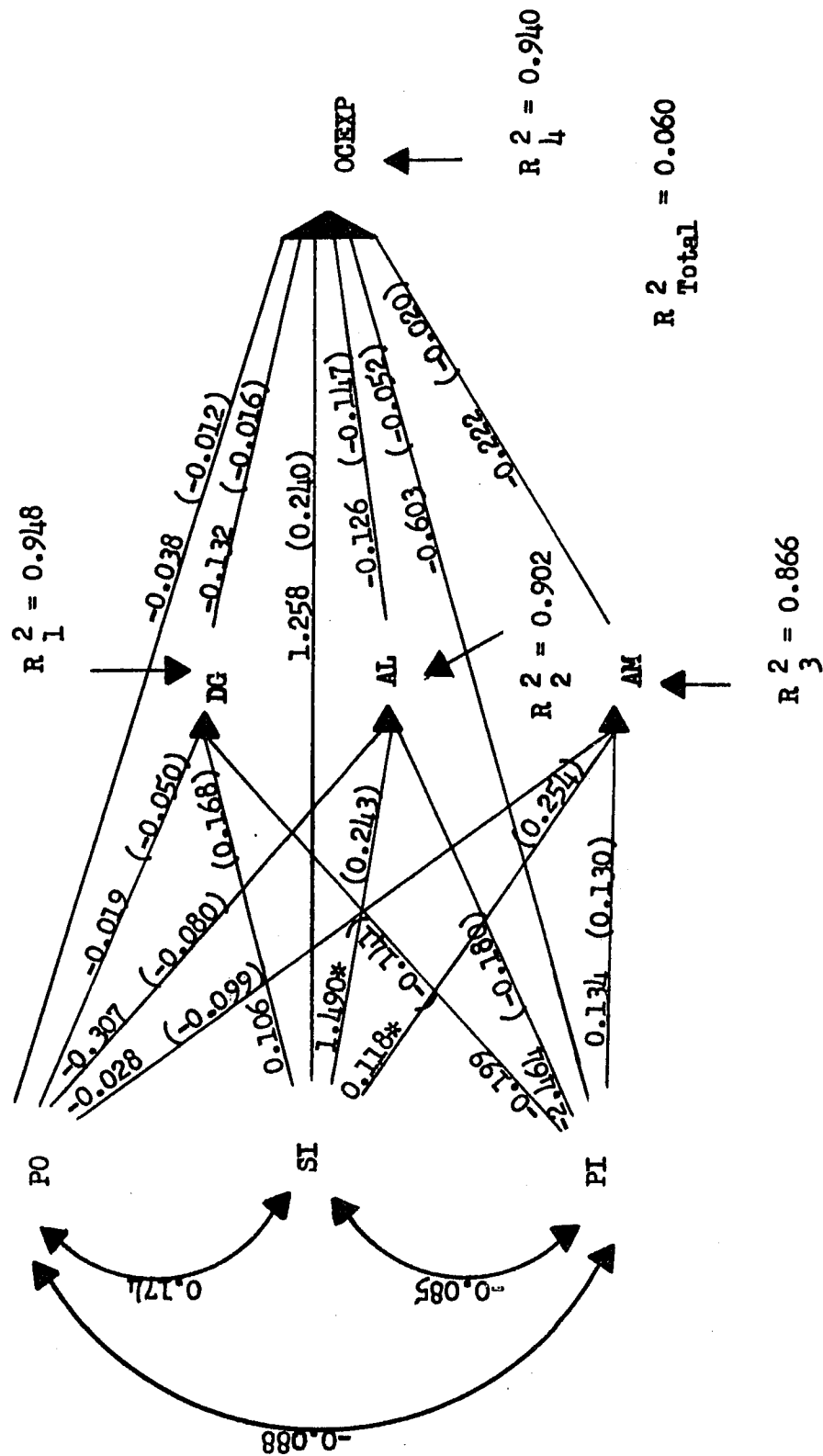
DELINQUENT EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION MODEL



DELINQUENT EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATION MODEL

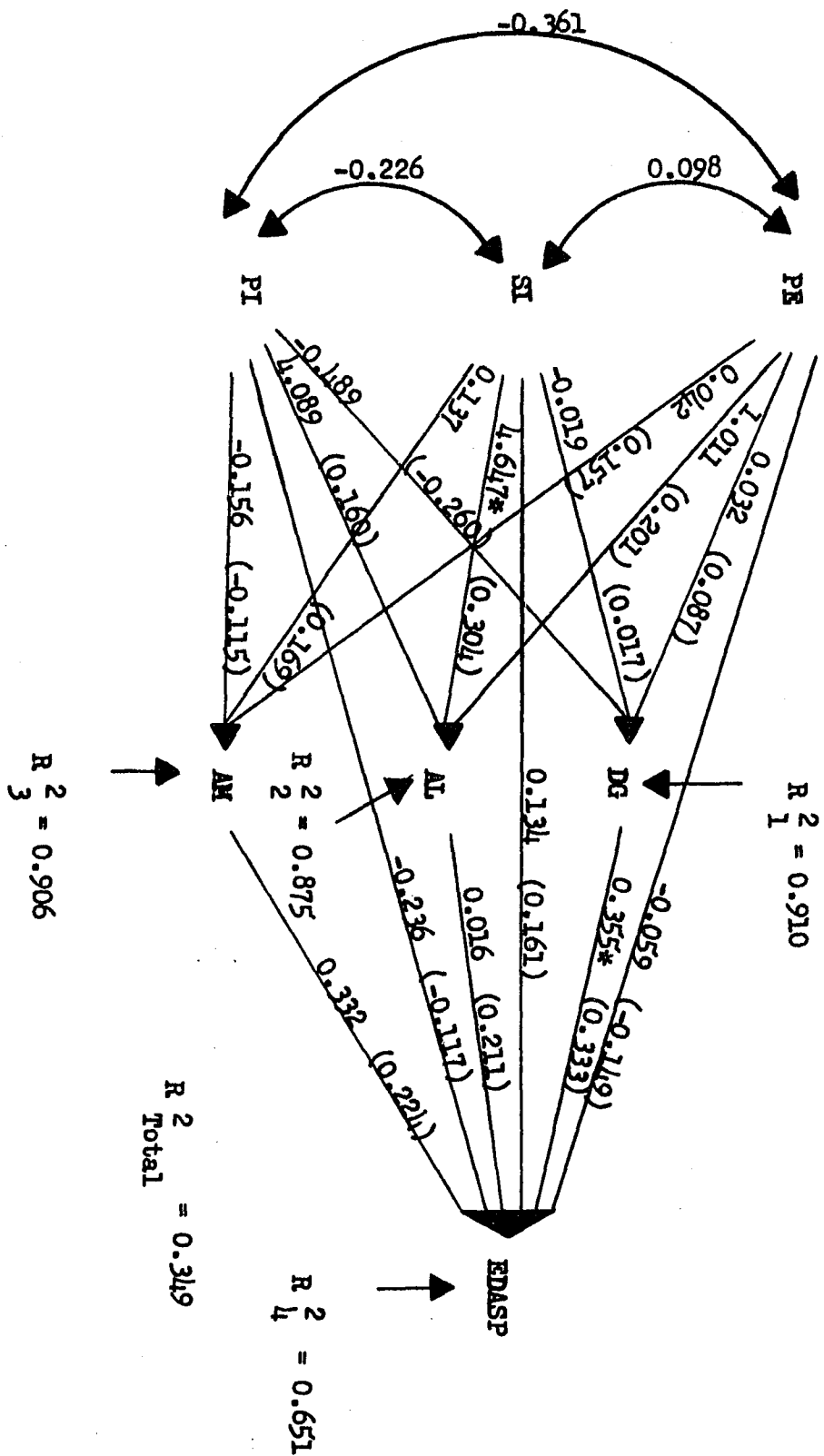


DELINQUENT OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION MODEL

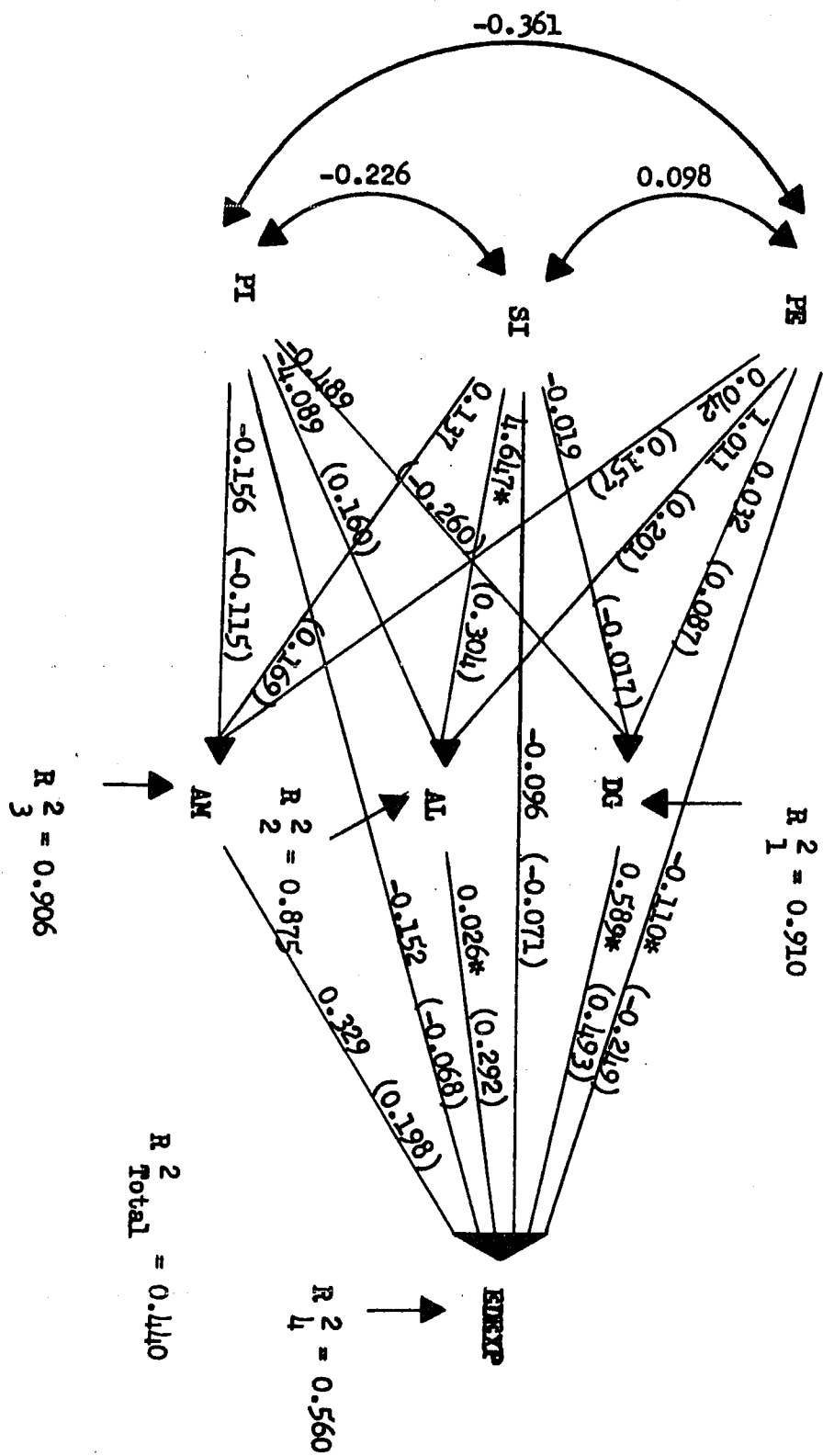


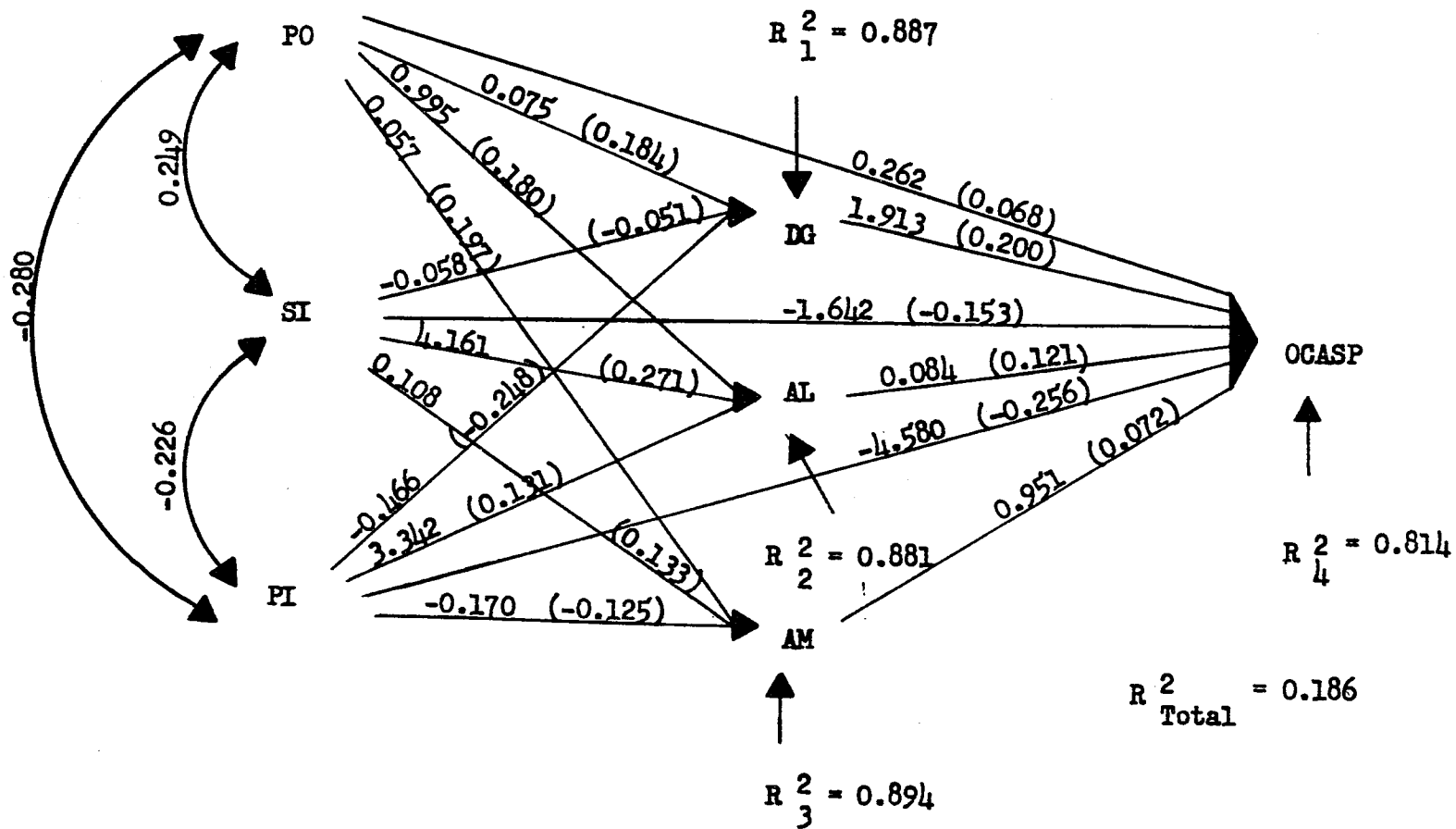
DELINQUENT OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION MODEL

NON-DELINQUENT EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION MODEL

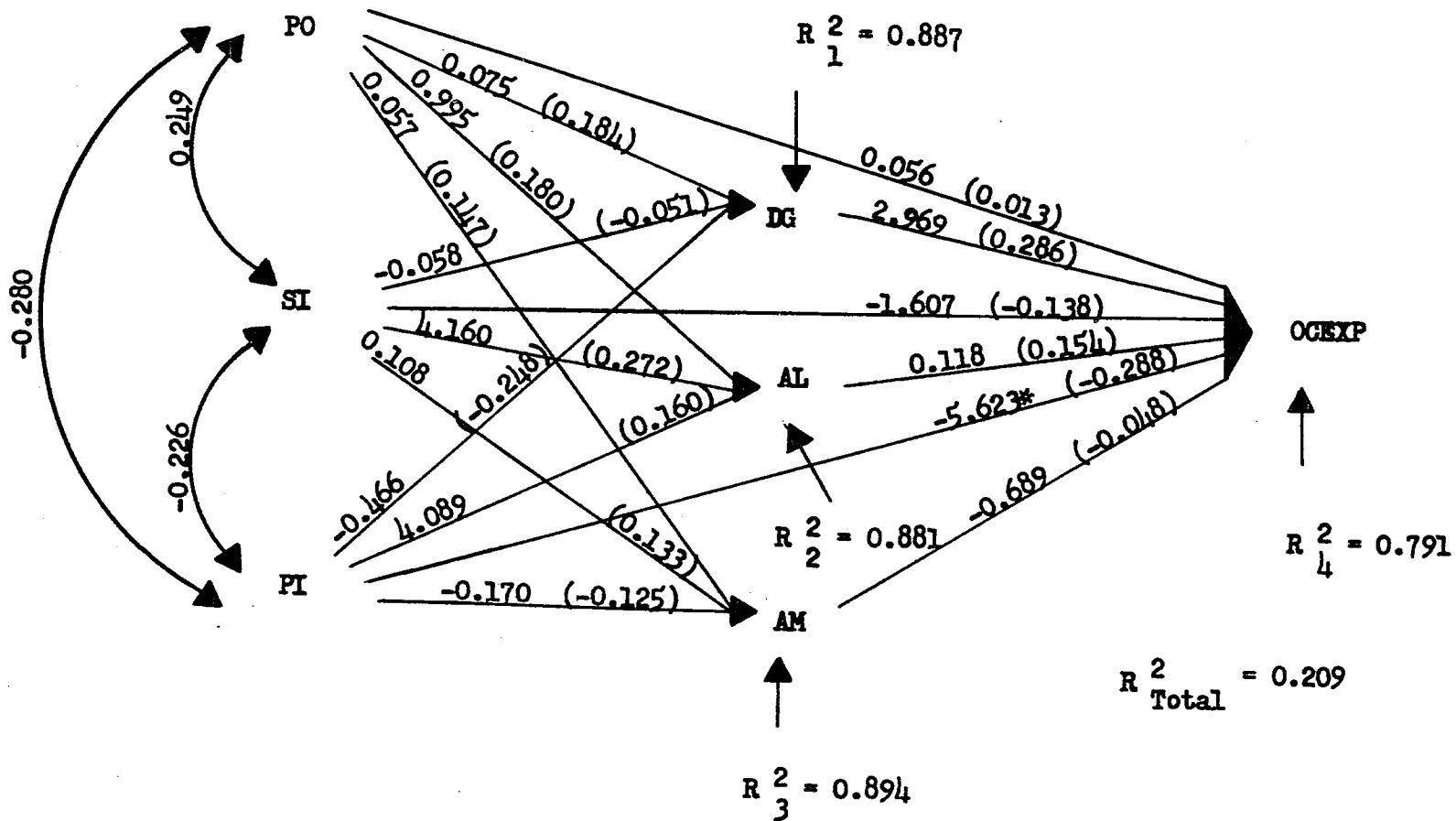


NON-DELINQUENT EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATION MODEL





NON-DELINQUENT OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION MODEL



NON-DELINQUENT OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATION MODEL

APPENDIX C
REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF
DELINQUENT AND NON-DELINQUENT SAMPLES

NORTH LOUISIANA DISTRIBUTION OF DELINQUENTS*

<u>REGION</u>	<u>PARISH</u>	<u>GRADE LEVEL</u>	
		<u>NINTH</u>	<u>TENTH</u>
Urban North	Caddo	3	2
	East Baton Rouge	4	4
	Jackson	-	2
	Ouachita	5	2
	Rapides	1	1
Black Belt	Claiborne	-	1
	Concordia	-	2
	East Carroll	-	2
	East Feliciana	1	-
	Madison	1	-
	Morehouse	1	-
	Natchitoches	-	1
Piney Woods-Hills	Tensas	1	-
	Beauregard	1	-
	Tangipahoa	-	2
	Winn	1	-
	Union	1	-
<u>TOTAL RESPONDENTS</u>		20	19

*Grenier's (1972) classification system was utilized.

SOUTH LOUISIANA DISTRIBUTION OF DELINQUENTS

<u>REGION</u>	<u>PARISH</u>	<u>GRADE LEVEL</u>	
		<u>NINTH</u>	<u>TENTH</u>
Urban South	Calcasieu	2	3
	Jefferson	1	1
	Lafayette	2	2
Urban French	Acadia	1	-
	Avoyelles	1	1
	Evangeline	-	1
	Iberia	1	-
	Jefferson Davis	1	-
	St. Mary	-	1
	Vermilion	-	1
Agrarian French	Iberville	1	-
	St. Landry	1	-
	St. Martin	1	2
	West Baton Rouge	1	-
Orleans	Orleans	2	4
<u>TOTAL RESPONDENTS</u>		<u>15</u>	<u>16</u>

DISTRIBUTION OF NON-DELINQUENT LOUISIANA RESPONDENTS

<u>REGION</u>	<u>GRADE LEVEL</u>	
	<u>NINTH</u>	<u>TENTH</u>
North	20	24
South	15	16
	<hr/>	<hr/>
<u>TOTAL RESPONDENTS</u>	35	40

VITA

The author was born on November 9, 1942, in Mankato, Minnesota. He attended public schools in Joliet, Illinois, and graduated from Joliet Township High School in June, 1960. He attended Joliet Junior College from September, 1960 to June, 1962, and received the Associate of Arts degree. From September, 1962, until January, 1964, the author attended the University of Illinois. He worked for a land surveyor from February, 1964, until September, 1965, in the state of Illinois and attended Joliet Junior College at night. The author entered Kentucky Wesleyan College in the fall of 1965, and received the Bachelor of Arts degree in June, 1967. During the summer of 1967, the author was employed as a caseworker by the Youth Commission in the state of Illinois. In the fall of 1967, he accepted a graduate assistantship in the Department of Sociology at Louisiana State University. He received a Master of Arts degree in Sociology in January, 1970.

In July, 1973, the author accepted a teaching position at Southeast Missouri State University, Cape Girardeau, Missouri. Presently, he is a candidate for the Doctorate of Philosophy degree.

The author is married to the former Kay F. Kinler of Hahnville, Louisiana.

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Major Field: Sociology

Title of Thesis: Educational and Occupational Projections of Male Black Youth: A
Delinquent-Non-Delinquent Comparison

Approved:

Wm. F. Anderson
Major Professor and Chairman

James L. Ingham
Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

Prentiss C. Schilling

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A. B. ...

Date of Examination:

May 2, 1974